DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 441 144 CE 080 158

AUTHOR	Sogaard, Jorn, Comp.; Wollschlager, Norbert, Comp.
TITLE	Internationalising Vocational Education and Training in Europe: Prelude to an Overdue Debate. A Discussion Paper. Conference on Internationalising Vocational Education and Training in Europe (Thessaloniki, Greece, May 25-27, 2000). CEDEFOP Panorama Series.
INSTITUTION	European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training, Thessaloniki (Greece).
ISBN	ISBN-92-828-9448-7
PUB DATE	2000-00-00
NOTE	119p.
AVAILABLE FROM	Bernan Associates, 4611-F Assembly Drive, Lanham, MD 20706-4391 (Catalogue No. TI-29-00-666-EN-C, free). Tel: 800-274-4447 (Toll Free); e-mail: query@bernan.com; Web site: http://www.bernan.com.
PUB TYPE	Collected Works - Proceedings (021)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC05 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Cross Cultural Training; Curriculum Development; Developed Nations; *Educational Certificates; Foreign Countries; *Global Approach; *International Cooperation; *International Educational Exchange; Job Skills; Job Training; Occupational Mobility; Overseas Employment; Postsecondary Education; Secondary Education; Staff Development; Student Certification; Teacher Exchange Programs; *Vocational Education
IDENTIFIERS	Australia; Denmark; England; *Europe; France; Germany; *Globalization; United Kingdom

ABSTRACT

These 12 papers represent different perspectives concerning internationalization of vocational education and training (VET) in Europe. The papers are: (1) "Internationalisation of Vocational Training in Europe" (Margrethe Vestager); (2) "International Employees Plead for Education and Assistance in Adjusting to Living in Foreign Cultures" (Jean R. McFarland); (3) "Globalisation and Internationalisation: Two Conflicting Discourses? Towards a Multilingual, Ethically Reflective Intercultural Competence" (Karen Risager); (4) "Trends in the Internationalisation of Qualifications" (Tim Oates); (5) "Internationalisation--What Are the Possibilities?" (Jorn Sogaard); (6) "Education and Training in Times of Globalization" (Michael Brater); (7) "The International Challenge for VET" (Kim Moller); (8) "Qualification Development of Internationally Active Skilled Workers--From Mobility of Labour to 'Virtual Mobility'" (Peter Wordelmann); (9) "Trainer Exchanges: A Staff Development Opportunity" (Marilyn Young); (10) "Internationalisation as a Challenge for Vocational Colleges in Europe" (Ronald Monch); (11) "The Internationalisation of VET: The Australian Experience" (Tony Crooks); and (12) "All of Us Must Have a Dream..." (Riccardo Petrella, interviewed by Norbert Wollschlaeger). Each paper contains references. (YLB)

Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made
from the original document.

ED 441 144

cedefop

European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training

PANORAMA

Internationalising vocational education and training in Europe

Prelude to an overdue debate

A discussion paper

PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE AND DISSEMINATE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
J. Von Rens
TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)
1

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)
☐ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.
☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.
• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Internationalising vocational education and training in Europe

Prelude to an overdue debate

A discussion paper

Compiled by:
Jørn Søgaard and Norbert Wollschläger

On the occasion of the conference on

Internationalising vocational education and training in Europe

Thessaloniki, Greece
25 - 27 May, 2000

Jointly organised by ACIU and CEDEFOP
With support from the European Commission

April 2000

on behalf of
CEDEFOP – European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training

Project coordinator Norbert Wollschläger under the responsibility of Stavros Stavrou, Deputy Director – CEDEFOP

Thessaloniki 2000

Published by:
CEDEFOP – European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training
Europe 123, GR-57001 THESSALONIKI (Pylea)

Postal address:
PO Box 22427, GR-55102 THESSALONIKI

Tel. (30-31) 490 111
Fax (30-31) 490 020
E-mail: info@cedefop.eu.int
Homepage: www.cedefop.eu.int
Interactive website: www.trainingvillage.gr

The Centre was established by Regulation (EEC) No 337/75 of the Council of the European Communities, last amended by Council Regulation (EC) No 251/95 of 6 February 1995 and Council Regulation (EC) No 354/95 of 20 February 1995.

A great deal of additional information on the European Union is available on the Internet. It can be accessed through the Europa server (http://europa.eu.int).

Cataloguing data can be found at the end of this publication.

Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, 2000

ISBN 92-828-9448-7

© European Communities, 2000
Reproduction is authorised provided the source is acknowledged.

Printed in Belgium

Foreword

Dear Reader,

We are happy to present this publication in the Cedefop Panorama series on the important issue of internationalisation of vocational education and training in Europe.

The issue of internationalisation of course differs from country to country. Internationalisation has for some time been an important development issue for higher education, and is now becoming more and more so for vocational education and training as well.

In these times of globalisation and the concomitant internationalisation it is of importance that we understand each others' perspectives and priorities, and that we learn from each others' good and interesting practices.

In this publication we, therefore, have solicited contributions from authors coming from a number of different countries, thus representing a number of different perspectives concerning internationalisation. The publication doubles as a working document for our conference on: Internationalising Vocational education and Training in Europe, 25-27 May 2000. The first European conference on internationalisation issues in the context of vocational education and training.

We have found the co-operative effort between Cedefop and ACIU very fruitful, and we hope that you will find this selection of articles of interest. We hope that these articles may provide inspiration in the further process of internationalising vocational education and training in Europe, a process that maybe at a later stage will add a more global perspective.

May 2000

Johan van Rens
Director Cedefop

Benny Dylander
Director ACIU

Table of contents

Foreword 1

Internationalisation of vocational training in Europe
Margrethe Vestager 5

International employees plead for education and assistance in adjusting to living in foreign cultures
Jean R. McFarland 7

Globalisation and internationalisation: two conflicting discourses?
Karen Risager 15

Trends in the internationalisation of qualifications
Tim Oates 21

Internationalisation – what are the possibilities?
Jørn Søgaard 27

Education and training in times of globalisation
Michael Brater 43

The international challenge for vocational education and training
Kim Møller 57

Qualification development of internationally active skilled workers – from mobility of labour to 'virtual mobility'
Peter Wordelmann 71

Trainer exchanges: a staff development opportunity
Marilyn Young 85

Internationalisation as a challenge for vocational colleges in Europe
Ronald Mönch 93

The internationalisation of vocational education and training: the Australian experience
Tony Crooks 99

All of us must have a dream ...
Riccardo Petrella, interviewed by Norbert Wollschläger 115

Internationalisation of vocational training in Europe

Together with developments in information technology, internationalisation is one of the predominant trends in present-day society, having an impact on all citizens. In the field of vocational training, international influences have been evident for many years. Many schools have initiated activities which are becoming increasingly important both for the schools themselves and for the entire area in which the schools are located. Information across borders and contact with other countries have become natural elements of our daily life.

In a small country such as Denmark we think that an international dimension in training and education is very important, since we are affected by events and developments in other countries and must recognise that we can learn from others. I am therefore very pleased with all the initiatives which result from EU cooperation. Cooperation in relation to EU programmes such as, for example, the Leonardo programme promotes mutual inspiration and improves our knowledge about each other.

I am also very pleased to see the current focus on mobility in Europe. I think it is very important that young people without vocational qualifications are able to gain international experience and intercultural competence. There is no doubt that such qualifications and competence will be important in the job market of the future. For this reason apprentices (enrolled in technical, vocational training programmes) in Denmark are given a concrete offer of staying at a workplace abroad for a period of time in order to improve their vocational qualifications and intercultural competencies. This is a recognised part of their practical training and education. By staying abroad for a period of time, young people also acquire a number of personal competencies which are much wanted by commerce and industry: initiative, responsibility, independence, flexibility, etc.

The Danish vocational training and education system has been developed in close consultation with labour market organisations. We think it is an ongoing challenge to ensure that training and education programmes always meet the requirements of modern society. We also believe that it is extremely important that everybody has an opportunity to receive training and education. The government's target is that 95% of all young people complete a youth training or education programme – either an upper secondary education programme or a vocational training and education programme.

Good, up-to-date education is a decisive factor for continued development in modern-day society, which is characterised by ever faster change. This is true in relation to young people but even more true for the adult part of the population. Lifelong learning is a reality now. Without continuous development of competencies, there will be no development in society. Development requires that each individual citizen renews and develops his or her qualifications throughout life.

But not all significant changes in society are related to the labour market. Globalisation and new ways of communicating will have an impact on basic values in society as well. These values are essential for maintaining democracy and for the well-established social system. We must also have a good understanding of our special identity, and we must show mutual respect and share responsibilities.

This means that we cannot talk about change without talking about values as well. It is important that the exchange of opinions and points of view in relation to values take place in an open, unprejudiced atmosphere. It must be a process in which we continually discuss what is right and what is wrong. Without shared values there will be no society.

Today schools are some of the few institutions – or perhaps even the only kind of institution – which are able to take up this challenge.

One of the major challenges for educational planners at present is to create attractive vocational training and education programmes which appeal to young people. All parties must cooperate to do so. The business sector in particular must provide the necessary on-the-job training. I believe that the international dimension of training and education will also attract many young people.

Danish vocational training and education programmes are alternating programmes, ie they are combinations of on-the-job training in various companies and classes at schools. This is a modern version of the traditional apprentice system which dates more than 400 years back. It ensures awareness and recognition of the qualifications of young people on the labour market. We are constantly developing the system, and we are open to inspiration from our partners in other countries, since it is well-known that innovation is often the result of a combination of insight into the ways things are done in other countries and one's own experience.

Margrethe Vestager

Danish Minister of Education

International employees plead for education and assistance in adjusting to living in foreign cultures

Jean R. McFarland, G.P. Morgan & Associates, USA

The contribution from Ms Jean McFarland focuses on problems encountered by people living and working internationally. A phenomenon that will become more pronounced as globalisation ties us all together, and our societies become more and more international. Her point is that these employees often are abandoned, receiving little or no support from their companies, nor have they received any preparation for the problems encountered through their education.

Education in terms of intercultural communication competence has not kept pace with the need as generated by globalisation. Whether employees travel internationally or communicate across cultures without leaving home, intercultural communication competence is critical to ensure communication that is not distorted by misinterpretation, misperception, or misevaluation. Employees lacking this competence often fail to adjust to other cultures, experience psychological and physical distress, create misunderstandings, and alienate members of other cultures, costing their companies untold sums of money, and loss of goodwill and future opportunities. Expatriate, repatriate, and impatriate informants cried out for assistance in adjusting to foreign cultures and to being understood.

Problem statement

A small, but growing, body of literature addresses the failure rates of expatriate, repatriate, and impatriate employees and relates failure to the difficulties and stress of adjusting to a different culture. The implications of these failures for the sponsoring organizations are serious and result in unnecessary cost, both obvious and hidden.

Purpose statement

Reports of research of expatriation and repatriation are scarce, particularly, from an interpretive perspective; reports of research of impatriation are even scarcer. The purpose of these studies was to arrive at an understanding of the lived experience for each group and to learn their personal perspectives of their needs for culturally adjusting and the actions that could be taken to enhance cultural adjustment. With this information, human resource development professionals can develop educational programs that will serve to enhance cultural adjustment, increase success rates, and increase retention of employees with international experience and skills, all of which are beneficial to the employing organizations.

Research question

Using an ethnographic perspective as described in *The Ethnographic Interview* by James Spradley (1979), only one primary question was asked of the informants in individual, face-to-face interviews, and only one term in the question varied per study: That was the

identifying term of the group; hence, the primary question was, "What is it like to be (1) an expatriate, (2) a repatriate, or (3) an international employee [impatriate] in the United States?" Secondary questions evolved through the ensuing dialogue.

Literature review

The literature reveals that organizations are not fully appreciative of the psychological impact of working and living in a culture other than one's own (McFarland, 1995, 1996) or of the cultural adaptation required to return to one's own culture after having lived in a foreign culture. The psychological impact is evidenced by the astoundingly high failure rate of expatriates (Copeland, 1985, 1990; McFarland, 1995) and low retention rate of repatriates (McFarland, 1997). However, perusal of the literature suggests that high failure rates should not be a surprise if the lack of cultural preparation and organizational support are considered (McFarland, 1995).

If pre-departure cultural preparation is provided in the form of intercultural communication training, it often is inadequate and insufficient. Brislin (1981) believes that intercultural communication training should attempt to improve cognitive, affective, and behavioral performance. However, what organizations offer under the guise of intercultural communication training may provide little more than the do's and don'ts of the target culture. Rarely, does it deliver underlying theories that allow the principles of intercultural communication to be applied to the variety of personalities and behaviors that are in any culture and to be transferred to other cultures. Cultural preparation and adjustment are issues of human resource development, business outcomes, and ethical consideration.

Human resource development perspective

Adaptation to a culture becomes synonymous with successful communication within that culture (Gudykunst & Kim, 1992) because culture is communication (Hall, 1981). With this in mind, some people may say that if one knows the language, ones knows the culture, but knowing the culture is more than being able to speak the language fluently. Jawaharlal Nehru emphasized that communication is not in the narrow sense of the word, but is language of the mind, that it is not the appeal to logic and reason, but is an emotional awareness of other people (cited in Adler, 1991). This is demonstrated by the culture shock repatriates experience although they are returning home to their native language.

Expatriates and impatriates, on the other hand, expect cultural differences, but still they are often overwhelmed by their host cultures. They describe the experience as being like a three-year-old child again, unable to communicate effectively and unaware of the technicalities of setting up a household in the host culture and becoming socially independent and viable (McFarland, 1996, 1998).

Repatriates find that the culture of their organizations and the social systems they left behind have changed or are not the same as remembered. They return to a *foreign* culture where they feel misunderstood and do not experience emotional awareness from others in terms of their international experiences and the changes they have undergone. The effect of finding that their home culture is now a foreign culture can produce culture shock far more severe than the culture shock of living abroad where differences and lack of understanding of the culture were expected.

Even worse, repatriates who have been recalled due to poor performance suffer the double jeopardy of culture shock and the stigma of failure. These people, who generally fail due to cultural incompatibility, return to their organizations labeled as failures and suffer professionally as they lose prestige in the eyes of their superiors. They frequently take positions for which they are over qualified due to their decreased self-confidence and self-esteem (McFarland, 1997).

Business perspective

Failed expatriates cost U.S. corporations over $2 billion per year in terms of funds spent on the recalled employees and funds spent to replace them. Nearly half of those who do not adjust well to the culture, but complete their assignments, report that they function below their normal level of productivity (Copeland, 1985). In addition, both recalls and low productivity are responsible for inestimable costs in terms of missed business opportunities.

Successful repatriates often find that their international experience and expertise are undervalued and underutilized. They are frustrated that their organizations shoehorn them into domestic-related positions just to provide them a job. As a result, almost one-quarter of repatriated employees leave their companies within one year of coming home (McFarland, 1995). They take with them valuable knowledge as they leave to work for competitors. If one in four repatriates leaves the firm each year, there can be no long-term return on the investment and there will be significant cost incurred to replace these employees.

Due to lack of cultural sensitivity and awareness, employers do not realize that repatriate employees are not the same people that they were when they left; that repatriates have experienced self-growth and have acquired international expertise and professional skills; and that they are experiencing culture shock. Repatriates need psychological and technical support, and they and their employers need intercultural communication training. A 1991 Dartmouth College study estimates, however, that 90% of U.S. companies offer less than three hours of training for the return home (Engen, 1995). Given that American multinational corporations spend approximately $1,000,000 on each expatriate over the duration of a three-to-four year foreign assignment (cited in Black, 1992), the cost of a training program to aid repatriates in adjusting to their home culture and reintegrating into the organization is minimal. Culture shock is costly whether looking at expatriates, repatriates, or impatriates. Global organizations should remember that "Culture is not peripheral to business—it's central to business. It permeates every aspect of business" (Guptara, 1990, p. 13).

Ethical perspective

The question of ethics arises for organizations that relocate people with no or inadequate cultural preparedness training for the purpose of working in an unfamiliar culture. The ethical question is especially poignant considering the growing body of research indicating that intercultural communication training significantly improves psychological well being, communication, and productivity. Numerous research reports have been compared and evaluated in two major studies (Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Deshpande & Viswesvaran, 1992). Deshpande and Viswesvaran concluding a meta-analysis of 21 research studies

that included 1,611 subjects, state that intercultural communication training clearly is effective for all five criteria they surveyed: self-development, perception, relationship, adaptation, and performance. The trend is clear: Intercultural communication training improves and accelerates cultural adaptation. To send employees to live and work in a foreign environment without cultural preparation is to set them up for failure. If they fail, they are blamed rather than the organization that did not prepare them. This scenario is neither lucrative nor ethical.

Theoretical framework

By definition, expatriation means a sojourn in a culture other than one's own; repatriates are people who return to their home country after a sojourn in a foreign country; and impatriates are people from a foreign country who come into one's culture to reside. Each culture represents a different system in which the individual must learn to communicate; therefore, the theoretical framework for these studies is built of Hofstede's theory of cultural dimensions (1984, 1991), communication theory, and, of course, systems theory (McLagan, 1989).

Hofstede's theory of cultural dimensions

Hofstede's (1984) theory of cultural dimensions assists in characterizing, predicting, identifying, and interpreting general behavior within and among cultures. His four cultural dimensions follow:

- *Individualism versus Collectivism.* This dimension pertains to the ties that bind people together. Individualists are loosely bound to each other; collectivists, on the opposing pole, are integrated into cohesive in-groups, which protect them in exchange for loyalty.
- *Power Distance.* Power distance refers to the degree of inequality that is expected and accepted among members of a culture.
- *Uncertainty Avoidance.* Uncertainty avoidance is the extent to which a culture will go to avoid uncertainty and, thus, anxiety.
- *Masculinity versus Femininity.* This dimension refers to qualities that are associated with the male and the female genders and represent the predominant values of life; for example, achievement and acquisitions (masculinity) or nurturing and relationships (femininity).

Knowledge of these dimensions provides opportunity for individuals to predict and understand culture-based behavior, so the observed behaviors are not perceived as personal affronts.

Communication theory

A basic communication model indicates that the message sent is never the same as the message received, because the messages received by listeners/observers are decoded and filtered through their personal perspectives, which are determined by their experiences: All interpretations are made through the lens of one's experiences. When the lenses are different, as between members of different cultures, interpretations are different; however, when awareness and sensitivity are heightened, the lenses of the

message sender and the message recipient are more nearly aligned, and communication competence is heightened.

General systems theory

Cultural preparedness training is based on systems theory assumptions and focuses on the intercultural communication processes that take place when individuals from one culture interact with those of another culture (Gudykunst & Kim, 1992).

Procedures and methods

Each of the three studies reported herein represents a phenomenological hermeneutic method that attempts to describe and to understand (hermeneutics) a particular phenomenon (phenomenology), in this case, expatriation, repatriation, and impatriation.

Informants

Names of United States expatriates and repatriates were acquired from top-level international human resource development professionals. They were connected directly as employees or indirectly as employees' spouses to multinational organizations. All impatriate informants were associated with a large Roman Catholic Archdiocese in the Midwest United States. Ages of informants ranged from the early thirties to the early fifties. Expatriates and impatriates had been in their current assignments at least one year, and repatriates had been home at least one year. Although it was unknown until the interviews were completed, none had had intercultural communication training.

Data collection

As recommended by Spradley (1979), Dobbert (1989), and van Manen (1990), unstructured, audiotaped, face-to-face interviews were used to gather data and to provide detailed, expanded accounts in verbatim records. In addition, notes were taken throughout the interviews by the interviewer.

Data analysis

The following strategies for discovering themes by using linguistic symbols have been suggested by Spradley, Tesch, Dobbert, and van Manen (1979, 1987, 1989, 1990, respectively) (sometimes using different terms for the same processes) and were used for thematic analysis in this study: transcription, highlighting, summarization, tree diagramming, domain analysis, taxonomic analysis, and componential analysis.

Findings and conclusions

Interestingly, the data from the three studies yielded similar themes that depicted similar personal needs and recommendations for action. The common denominator among the three groups is the challenge (sometimes despair) of cultural adjustment (even when returning home) and their plea for both physical and psychological support. Following are some of the quotations that suggest their feelings, observations, and concerns:

United States expatriates in Belgium, France, and the Netherlands

- You can see just by walking through the neighbourhood, – everybody has a huge fence around their house. They close it off as much as they can, and as soon as it gets dark, those big heavy blinds go down. Very, very private people. *(Belgium)*
- There is no interaction between the communities. *(Belgium)*
- Nobody here makes a mistake. It's always the other guy. *(France)*
- The Dutch are more like Americans, more open and friendly. *(Netherlands)*
- I expected within the first week I was here to have someone ring the doorbell and introduce themselves to me. A year went by and I still haven't met the people next door. *(Belgium)*

United States repatriates from Africa, Japan, and Western Europe

- Culturally the company has changed. There's a lot of anxiety about security and wellness of the business that wasn't there when we left. *(Employee)*
- Companies are losing [repatriate] employees because they are not making the effort to help them adjust. *(Spouse)*
- The relationships you had with friends before you left are pretty much gone. *(Spouse)*
- I don't know why companies think they can send someone someplace for five years, give them that degree of responsibility and excitement in their life, give them that broad experience, and then expect to bring them back to corporate headquarters and throw them in a cubicle. *(Spouse)*
- For preparation to go abroad, we were handed a notebook and told, "Have fun." *(Spouse)*
- Corporate headquarters doesn't have a clue what real life is all about. *(Spouse)*
- When you come back, you're overhead. Human Resources just wants to get rid of the overhead. They aren't there for you! *(Employee)*
- Anybody who goes over on a foreign assignment and thinks somebody in the company is going to keep track of you, that's the biggest farce there is. *(Employee)*

Impatriates to the United States

- I was frightened about coming to America. *(Africa)*
- I feel very uncomfortable. I don't feel at home. *(Mexico)*
- In Africa, I would be more interested in you, in making you feel at home, talking with you. *(Africa)*
- Everybody here seems to be kind of isolated, individual. He is responsible for himself and he has no community to fall back on. *(India)*
- It's difficult coming from a society where the family matters so much to a society where the individual matters most. *(Africa)*

If the informants had had intercultural communication training that included a theoretical foundation for application and transfer of learning, they would have been able to predict and understand many of the behaviors they witnessed in their organizations and social interactions. If members of the organizations had had intercultural communication training, they could have been aware of and sensitive to the needs of their expatriates, repatriates, and impatriates.

Following are some of the suggestions from the three groups for aiding international employees and their companions with cultural adjustment, whether they are abroad or returning to their home culture:

- Use more discerning measures for selection of international employees and their companions.
- Educate native and foreign employees in intercultural communication competence.
- Provide opportunity for language lessons.
- Provide a technical assistant to help with the details of starting life in a different culture.
- Provide all information and equipment pertinent to the role/work of the employee.
- Create open, frequent communication with the home organization to dispel feelings of abandonment and to ensure a favorable position upon returning.
- Create opportunities for positive social interactions in order to communicate and become better acquainted with host country members and with other people in the same situation.
- Mostly, listen to them.

Implications and recommendations

These studies suggest that the multinational organizations represented herein do not view cultural sensitivity and awareness as critically important to working in the global arena and do not recognize their role in preventing failure of their employees. The metathemes that emerged from the data analyses imply several avenues for future research in the areas of selection; communication between employees and their employers; designing and developing intercultural communication competence-building programs for expatriates, repatriates, impatriates, and other employees of the organizations; and cultural preparedness.

References

Adler N. J., *International dimensions of organizational behavior.* Boston: PWS-Kent, 1991

Black, J. S., Coming home: The relationship of expatriate expectations with repatriation adjustment and job performance. *Human Relations 45*(2), 1992, pp. 177-192.

Black, J. S. & Mendenhall, M., Cross-cultural training effectiveness: A review and a theoretical framework for future research. *Academy of Management Review, 15*(1), 1990, pp.113-136.

Brislin, R. W., *Cross-cultural encounters: Face-to-face interaction.* Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1981.

Copeland, L., Cross-cultural training: The competitive edge. *Training, 22*(7), 1985, pp. 49-51.

Copeland, L., International training. In R. L. Craig (Ed.), *Training and development handbook* (pp. 717-25). New York: McGraw-Hill, 1990.

Deshpande, S. P. & Viswesvaran, C., Is cross-cultural training of expatriate managers effective: A meta-analysis. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 16*, 1992, pp. 295-310.

Dobbert, M., *Ethnographic research: Theory and application for modern schools and society*. New York: Praeger Publishers, 1989.

Engen, J. R., Coming home. *Training*, 1995, March.

Gudykunst, W. B. & Kim, Y. Y., *Communicating with strangers (2nd ed.)*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1992.

Guptara, P., The art of training abroad. *Training & Development Journal*, 1990, November, pp. 13-17.

Hall, E. T., *Beyond culture*. New York: Anchor Books/Doubleday, 1981.

Hofstede, G., *Culture's consequences: International differences in work-related values* (2nd ed.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage, 1984.

Hofstede, G., *Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1991.

Marx, E., *Breaking through culture shock*. London: Nicholas Brealey Publishing, 1999.

McFarland, J. R., The status of intercultural communication training in Fortune 500 manufacturing and service organizations. *Academy of Human Resource Development 1995 Conference Proceedings*. Austin, TX: AHRD, 1996.

McFarland, J. R., Perspectives of United States expatriates in the Netherlands, Belgium, and France on expatriation and the role of their sponsoring organization. *Academy of Human Resource Development 1996 Conference Proceedings*. Austin, TX: AHRD, 1996.

McFarland, J. R., An interpretive study of the perspectives of United States repatriates on repatriation and the role of their employers *Academy of Human Resource Development 1997 Conference Proceedings*. Austin, TX: AHRD, 1997.

McFarland, J. R., Impatriation via a not-for-profit organization: An interpretive study of the cultural adjustment of international catholic priests and sisters to living in the upper Midwest United States and the role of the organization. *Academy of Human Resource Development 1999 Conference Proceedings*. Chicago, IL: AHRD, 1998.

McLagan, P., Systems model 2000: Matching systems theory to future HRD issues. In D. Gradous (Ed.), *Systems theory applied to human resource development*, 1989, pp. 61-82.

Spradley, J. P., *The ethnographic interview*. New York: Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich, 1979.

Tesch, R., Emerging themes. The researcher's experience. *Phenomenology & Pedagogy, 5*(3), 1987, pp. 230-241.

van Manen, M., *Researching lived experience*. New York: State University of New York Press, 1990.

Globalisation and internationalisation: two conflicting discourses?

Towards a multilingual, ethically reflective intercultural competence

Karen Risager, University of Roskilde

Ms Risager discusses the different discourses that are currently in use concerning globalisation and internationalisation. The article points out how the terms are interrelated and puts them in perspective by tying them into historical developments over the last 2-3 centuries.

Educational institutions the world over are at present vying with each other in their efforts to 'internationalise themselves' – do they, though, always have a clear picture in their minds of what tendencies they are supporting when they prepare and implement a particular internationalisation strategy?

In order to discuss this, I want to take as my point of departure a characteristic difference in the usage of the concepts of globalisation and internationalisation in Denmark, and in the rest of Europe probably. For in educational contexts they seem to belong to two different discourses, each of which has its own very different perspective on present developments.

Globalisation and internationalisation: two conflicting discourses

In the media and the educational world, globalisation is first and foremost perceived as something threatening from outside: as worldwide coercion towards homogenisation ('McDonaldisation', etc.); as increasing global competition for markets, workplaces and competences; or as reckless currency speculation that undermines the economy and prosperity of individual states (Martin and Schumann 1996). Internationalisation, on the other hand, is first and foremost perceived as a development strategy which is vital for the survival of individual companies or educational institutions in the face of global competition. In short: Internationalisation is a form of defence against the threat of globalisation

Here we have two conflicting discourses: The discourse on globalisation has to do with a (macro-)historical process which – seen from a local perspective – is felt to be menacing and therefore negative; while the discourse on internationalisation has to do with a development strategy which (of necessity) is referred to in positive terms, as something that everyone has to back – almost like a mantra. Internationalisation is seen as a task that involves giving a higher priority to international activities, the international dimension in teaching, international experience and intercultural competence – all of them concepts which have positive connotations.

The conflict arises when, as I do here, the two discourses are juxtaposed. Normally, however, they do not appear together. In educational contexts there is not all that much mention of globalisation, and when globalisation is talked of in economic or sociological theory, the term internationalisation is also used, although with a different meaning, with internationalisation being perceived as a special instance of globalisation (see below).

I would claim that the way internationalisation is normally talked about within the education sector is ideological, because it has a tendency to hide the fact that internationalisation is actually a strategy which underpins globalisation. Globalisation is, however, a very complex process, in which certain dimensions can be perceived as negative and others positive. In the following, I therefore intend to outline briefly how the globalisation process is described in academic contexts, especially within (cultural) sociology, as represented by the British sociologist Roland Robertson (cf. Robertson 1993, and Risager 1998). After that, I will take up the discussion about the two discourses once more, looking in particular at what significance it has for the choice of an internationalisation strategy and for the content of the concepts of linguistic and intercultural competence.

Globalisation is a protracted (macro-)historical process of change

Globalisation is a concept that became particularly popular after the fall of the Berlin Wall. But the processes with which the term globalisation is now connected have been active since the early 15th century in Europe. Robertson distinguishes five phases in the history of globalisation (Robertson 1992):

- The Germinal Phase, from the early 15th to the mid 18th century: The growth of the national communities at the expense of the medieval 'transnational' system. The emergence of ideas concerning the individual and humanity. The heliocentric world picture.
- The Incipient Phase, from the mid 18th century to the 1870s: Sudden growth of ideas concerning the homogenous state and formalised international relations between states. More concrete ideas of the (national) citizen and that shared by human beings. International legislation, international cooperation, world expositions, thematisation of the relationship between 'nationalism' and 'internationalism'.
- The Take-off Phase, from the 1870s to the mid 1920s: An increasing number of social relations become worldwide, e.g. the generalised idea of the 'nation state', more and more non-European communities are incorporated into 'the international community', the development of worldwide forms of communication (telephone, telegraph, radio), the holding of the Olympic Games, the awarding of Nobel prizes – and the First World War.
- The Struggle-for-Hegemony Phase, from the mid 1920s to the late 1960s: The struggle between the capitalist and the communist system. The League of Nations, the Second World War, the United Nations, decolonisation and the crystallisation of the Third World, the Cold War, the arms race and the space race.
- The Uncertainty Phase, from the late 1960s to the 1990s: Development of a stronger global awareness. Landing on the moon. End of the Cold War. The number of global institutions and movements increases dramatically. Consolidation of the global media

and the world market (WTO). Increasing interest in ideas about the world society and the global environment. World summit meetings. The international system is no longer bipolar but more fluid – it is not clear what 'the new world order' involves.

Globalisation is both objective and subjective

This theory contains a broad, interdisciplinary perception of globalisation as a process that comprises both objective and subjective aspects. The process has to do with the objective economic, political and social structuring and merging into larger and larger units as well as with the subjective development of a clearer and clearer idea of the oneness of humanity and of the individual as simultaneously being a national citizen, world citizen and individual human being in relation to the rest of humanity – the last-named, for example, in connection with ideas about human rights.

Globalisation and localisation are two sides of the same coin

Robertson uses the hybrid term 'glocalisation' to bring out the fact that globalisation and localisation are two sides of the same coin. He also talks about the global/local nexus. An example which Robertson does not provide himself is the development of the English language: English can be called the language of globalisation – it has spread to a large part of the world (i.a. via linguistic imperialism, cf. Phillipson), partly as a national language and/or official language (USA, India, Nigeria, etc.), partly as an international language of communication. This is a global homogenisation process.

At the same time, English has split up into various regional variants that differ increasingly from each other. It has long since been acknowledged that Indian English is a special variant. However, something similar could also be said of Danish English (and Norwegian English) – it is probably even possible to identify a special Århus-English as opposed to, for example, Copenhagen-English, etc. All these local variations are gradually gaining a certain degree of recognition. They are examples of linguistic localisation, involving a heterogenisation. It has been expressed thus: The world is moving from macro-diversity to micro-diversity.

The formation of nation states is an aspect of globalisation

Another example of localisation as an aspect of globalisation is the formation of nation states throughout the above-mentioned five historical phases. A point in relation to the general discussion of globalisation today is that the nation states have been brought about by the globalisation process, that they did not 'precede' globalisation. But the states are gradually acquiring other tasks in connection with the intensification of globalisation. From economically liberal quarters it has been said that nation states have two tasks in 'the new world order':

- to produce the right people with the right knowledge and experience, so that they can be used as raw material for global companies, and
- to ensure companies an efficient infrastructure in a market that ought to be regulated as little as possible (Ian Angell, published in Politikens Erhvervsmagasin 5/8/98). (Politiken is a Danish newspaper)

Internationalisation as a special instance of globalisation

In relation to the globalisation theory, the term internationalisation is simply a precursor of globalisation. Robertson criticises the term internationalisation as being insufficient today, as it only takes account of that which takes place between two or more nations, e.g. the European process of integration. For Robertson the term globalisation is better, since it can also include all the transnational processes that take place completely or partially outside the single nations' control, e.g. the development of transnational companies. In this context, internationalisation is then a subconcept of globalisation.

Attitudes towards the globalisation process

Globalisation then is a unity of the global and the local, a unity of homogenisation and heterogenisation. That can make it rather difficult to deal with: which developmental tendencies are positive and which are negative? One's attitude depends, naturally, on the angle from which one is looking.

Personally, I believe that it is important to strengthen democracy at all levels, thereby enabling people to maximise the influence they can have on their own lives, including the social, cultural and linguistic dimensions. This is to take place at the same time as the maximum possible number of people are to gain the means of adopting an independent, critical and responsible attitude towards the world around them – both the one close to and the one far away from home. This view differs from the one cited from Politiken: 'to produce the right people with the right knowledge and experience, so that they can be used as raw material for global companies'. One could describe the two attitudes as the democratic and the market-oriented respectively.

Internationalisation as development strategy

In the educational world the term internationalisation is not, then, used as a special instance of globalisation but more as a pragmatically oriented term that involves the existence of an agent, a purpose, a strategy and an implementation.

So as not to acquire the ideological nature I mentioned earlier the arguments for the individual internationalisation strategy would have to adopt a conscious and differentiated attitude towards the various dimensions of globalisation: where does one support the tendencies toward homogenisation, or tendencies towards heterogenisation – and for what reasons? And what attitude toward world development underlies the choice of an internationalisation strategy?

A multilingual, ethically reflective intercultural competence

Since I would argue for a democratic attitude, I prefer internationalisation strategies which i.a. result in a multilingual, ethically reflective intercultural competence, as a counterweight to the usual strategy based on a market oriented approach.

For in the general discourse on linguistic and intercultural competence there exists an interesting divergence between linguistic and intercultural competence.

On the one hand, linguistic competence is tending to close around competence in English: it is incredibly common for only English to be taken into the picture in connection with

internationalisation considerations. A knowledge of English is, of course, important, but an 'English only' policy also restricts the mobility in the world of the people involved. Apart from that, it strengthens the linguistic homogenisation process.

On the other hand, intercultural competence is tending to open up to all cultural conditions, anywhere and in any contexts. A person who has an optimal intercultural competence is expected to be able to move freely and uncritically everywhere, without making any particular blunders. Here mobility and relativism are given high priority. In my opinion, however, we are in need of an ability to reflect ethically and critically on that which we experience and take part in, thereby avoiding becoming a radical relativist. In agreement with Bauman (1993) I would put it this way: that faced with the lack of a common moral codex in the postmodern era, each individual has to develop his or her own morals and ethics.

Where is internationalisation heading?

As I started by saying: Educational institutions the world over are at present vying with each other in their efforts to 'internationalise themselves' – perhaps they also ought to be showing some interest in where internationalisation is heading, what world picture they are operating inside and what their view of humanity is. Why not develop various far-reaching, specialised language profiles: that particular educational institution is good at English, Chinese and Japanese; that one is good at English, Russian and Latvian; and that one is good at English, French, Arabic and Turkish?

Why not pursue a multilingual and ethically reflective multicultural strategy in connection with the internationalisation of education and training in Europe?

References

Bauman, Zygmunt, *Postmodern Ethics*, Oxford, UK: Blackwell, 1993.

Martin, Hans-Peter and Harald Schumann, *Die Globalisierungsfalle. Der Angriff auf Demokratie und Wohlstand*, 1997 (German edition 1996).

Phillipson, Robert, *Linguistic imperialism*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1992.

Risager, Karen, Language Teaching and the Process of European Integration in: Michael Byram and Michael Fleming (eds): *Language Learning in International Perspective*. Cambridge University Press, 1998, pp. 242-54.

Robertson, Roland, *Globalization. Social Theory and Global Culture*. London: SAGE Publications, 1992.

Robertson, Roland, *Globaliseringens problem* [The problem of globalisation]. in: GRUS 41, 1993, pp. 6-31.

Trends in the internationalisation of qualifications

Tim Oates, Qualifications and Curriculum Authority, London

As our companies, our workplaces, our jobs and our societies become more international, qualification needs become more international. Mr Tim Oates, in his article, deals with the issue of the internationalisation of qualifications and the ensuing erosion of national foci in the ongoing qualifications debate.

Erosion of national focus in qualifications systems

Increasing internationalisation of law, opening of international markets, global movement of capital, migration of labour and other factors associated with internationalisation feature increasingly in analysis of the performance of national economies.

While transnational recognition of qualifications has long been a feature of aspects of national systems, this typically has been associated with entry to universities and the issue of licence to practice by those holding 'foreign' certificates, qualifications remain very firmly lodged in national systems. The emerging exceptions – such as the Microsoft qualifications in Information and Communications Technology (ICT) throw this persistent parochialism into sharp relief, with qualifications such as the International Baccalaureate (IB) currently attracting considerable attention, but only very small numbers of entrants (ref.). While education systems in European nation states emphasise the importance of second or even third languages, the actual form of the qualifications remains highly distinctive in each nation state (Green A.). Tendencies such as a move towards modularisation. Indeed, attempts to harmonise qualifications systems made during the early years of the EU quickly subsided into effort to show the relationship between different states' qualifications (Oates T.). Instead of transforming qualifications, the effort was devoted to leaving them intact, but showing how they related. The persistence of national qualifications can be explained by: the pivotal role which they possess within each national education and training system; their use by Government and other agencies as an instrument of control; and within cultural systems in society:

- structuring and regulating the content of learning programmes
- determining assessment methods
- safeguarding standards of performance of learners
- controlling access to employment and further learning opportunities
- a means of effecting curriculum change and innovation
- setting national targets for improved performance
- operating accountability measures for schools, teachers etc
- giving status to individuals
- giving status to certain forms of learning, knowledge and skills

- conveying information about achievement/attainment
- sustaining public confidence in education and training
- allowing geographical movement within labour markets

Qualifications are thus deeply embedded in the operation of complex systems, and carry a complex and interacting mix of functions, many of them highly politicised, particularly where national governments use qualifications as a principal means of effecting curriculum control and maintaining public accountability. Delicate balances exist, and the revision of qualifications (in form, in content) a similarly delicate and politicised process. This 'embeddedness' of qualifications in social and political systems, plus the importance of keeping the content of qualifications stable in order to allow comparisons over time, makes qualifications both resistant to change and less likely to be influenced by things other than national agenda.

Forms of increasing internationalisation

Tendencies towards increased internationalisation of qualifications assumes a variety of forms:

1. Languages and intercultural competence

Where learning programmes or individual qualifications retain all the characteristics of the national system but can include a language component. For example, an 18 year old student may take a foreign language A level with two other subjects such as English and History. Another taking an Advanced GNVQ (equivalent to two full A levels) can take an A level, a GCSE, language units, or a language certificate alongside the GNVQ. Some vocational qualifications include language as an optional component as a part of the qualification. In addition, adults can take specific language qualifications as part of professional and/or personal development, by attending further education providers or using distance learning.

In England, there is a wide range of qualifications which can be built into learning programmes alongside other qualifications – these range from general academic qualifications (such as GCSE and A/AS qualifications) to specialist certificates. There exists also a wide range of commercial distance learning programmes, oriented towards practical use of language.

The creation of qualifications and learning programmes oriented to learning and assessment of intercultural competence is a very underdeveloped area in the English system. Essentially, intercultural competence is developed within programmes as an implicit rather than explicit component. There are a few examples of unit-based vocational qualifications including 'European awareness' as a special unit (e.g. in EDEXCEL general vocational qualifications), but these are a notable exception to the norm. Dealing with cultural aspects of other nations' social and commercial systems arises 'naturally' from exploring nuances of language and contexts in which specific language is used.

2. Internationalisation of technical content

Where content is included which relates to areas such as contracting in foreign markets, but in qualifications which retain the form and function of qualifications in the nation state's

own system. Content of this kind typically relates to areas such as international contracting, international law, etc. Such content typically is not designed to enhance transnational occupational mobility; its principal aim is to respond to the increasing internationalisation of commercial activities in individual nation states.

3. Internationalisation of the form of qualifications - transnational equivalences

Where increasing attention is paid by bodies designing qualifications and by government agencies to the alignment – in terms of content, form and level – of national qualifications with those of other nations. Impetus has been given to these developments by:

- increasing labour mobility, particularly the issue of incoming higher professional workers seeking to practice in areas such as medicine, care and engineering
- growing interest of governments, researchers and developers in the alignment of qualifications across the EU

There are policy instruments specifically designed to enhance development and policy work in this area, such as a the ISCED levels. In addition, and equally significant, are underlying trends towards modularisation (unitisation), competence-based standards, inclusivity, etc which are promoting increasing intra- and international convergence in the form, content and aims of qualifications.

4. Internationalisation of the form of qualifications - transnational qualifications

Where qualifications have been developed specifically to be used in a wide variety of national systems – for example, the international Baccalaureate, and the vocationally-oriented Eurobaccalaureate, currently under development in a project managed by Austria.

5. Internationalisation of judgement of the performance of national systems

The concern of national governments to enhance the performance of their own education and training systems (Green A., ref.) has included increasing reference to the performance of other nations' systems. The increase in routine national testing (for example, USA, UK, New Zealand) has enhanced the data available for transnational comparisons, alongside more regular survey-based international comparisons (for example, ILES (International Literacy Survey), TIMS (Third International Maths Survey). While the methodological problems associated with such comparisons are legion (Goldstein H., French ILES ref.), the increasing tendency to use transnational comparisons to legitimate national innovation and revision is a significant one.

Non-governmental transnational qualifications development

A crucial issue for national governments is the emergence of qualifications developed by multinational companies, such as those being developed in the computing industry. This augers a new phase of reduced control by governments of qualifications in critical areas of the economy, and thus reduced control by governments of national education and training systems.

To suppress the use and uptake of such qualifications governments can choose to use mechanisms such as funding (for Government funded programmes only), legislation

stating the qualifications required for practising in an occupation, and collaborative arrangements between Government and key organisations such as universities and employer organisations. However, the climate of regulation differs considerably from EU state to EU state. Germany and England contrast sharply, with labour market regulation existing in a much more elaborated form in Germany than in England. In the latter, employers outside professions such as engineering, law, nursing etc, can use a wide variety, or indeed any qualifications if they so choose. Introducing restrictive practices in areas such as information technology would represent a considerable extension of state control.

Crude market models might suggest that there is nothing problematic in such qualifications becoming dominant; essentially, if they are gaining currency in an occupational sector, this is the result of meeting effectively the needs in that sector. However, there are three major issues which are not confronted in such an analysis:

1. Supply of qualifications does not guarantee a high level of training

Firstly, the simple provision of qualifications does not by itself generate or determine the conditions for a high level of training (Feingold, D.). Both Germany and England have elaborated systems of qualifications; while the systems are of course different in form, a comprehensive system of qualifications is available in both countries. However, in strong contrast, the low level of initial training in England and the over-supply of training places for 19-25 year olds in Germany can be seen to be the result of differences in the way in which structural incentives have been created and managed. Government policy, employer collaboration, funding arrangements, labour laws, pay agreements, historical and cultural antecedents combine in Germany to create a beneficial pattern of incentives, and have combined in a problematic way in England. The supply of qualifications is thus not the determining factor, but contributes to a complex set of relations. The new international qualifications may or may not disrupt such sets of relations in individual nation states. However, they do remove from nation states the ability to use so readily qualifications for curriculum control, maintenance of training standards etc. Crucially, these qualifications rely on agencies involved in and managing beneficial patterns of incentives: these include national governments, employer organisations, social partners, employers.

2. Potential narrowness of market-led qualifications

Being driven by immediate industrial needs, these qualifications may not engage with important issues of breadth, preparation for future roles, social education, etc which feature in curriculum development for initial training in labour markets in specific nation states. The concerns of government to develop a curriculum with such features reflects the social purpose of education and training; its role in social structures, in ensuring that individuals have portable qualifications, and develop 'good habits' in lifelong learning.

3. Absence of public accountability

These qualifications are not developed by organisations which have elaborated public accountability mechanisms. By contrast, the development of qualifications in EU nations typically includes consultation and approval processes which can involve:

- a variety of government agencies
- social partners
- employer organisations and employers
- professional bodies
- other interested public and independent bodies (e.g. consumer organisations)
- learners
- training providers.

These processes are necessary for supporting coherent qualifications systems which avoid problems of duplication, overlap, quality, access and coverage.

Without attention being paid to the shape and performance of the qualifications system as a whole, there is a risk of suffering from structural problems in relation to:

1. Duplication and overlap

Where bodies/organisations tend to compete in the most profitable areas, thus offering competing qualifications

2. Quality

Where a significant part of the cost of qualifications is located in assessment and quality assurance/control systems, and may be targeted for cost reduction when market pressures are brought to bear. In addition, innovations such as a focus on competence/skills may occur unevenly across the system; indeed, market competition can encourage uneven development of the system due to pursuit of 'competitive edge'

3. Access

Limitations on access to qualifications can stem from deliberate control of labour market flows, insidious or overt societal stereotypes, inability to purchase training/qualifications, etc. Legislation, formal requirements and management of appropriate incentives for ensuring appropriate access for all societal groups have developed as a feature of western democratic public policy – public accountability mechanisms are vital for sustaining such aspects of qualifications systems

4. Coverage

Before the Review of Vocational Qualifications in 1985, vocational qualifications in England were not considered as a national system. Qualifications were available from a very wide range of private and semi-public organisations. The system manifested not only duplication and overlap, but also considerable gaps in provision – both in terms of sectors and in terms of levels. For example, there was a serious absence of work-based, competence-oriented qualifications for 16-19 year olds, and some vital sectors, such as retail and distribution, lacked qualifications. One feature of the development of public policy which emphasises the coherence of the qualifications framework has been the development and implementation of qualifications in sectors and at levels where previous market-oriented processes have failed to supply qualifications.

5. Progression

Where some qualifications exist in clear relation to others in a ladder of progression, others do not. At a general level, in the UK general academic qualifications (GCSE, A levels) typically have enjoyed greater power in respect of progression than vocational qualifications, both in terms of specific credit (progression in the same subject/area) and in terms of general credit (giving progression to a wide range of subjects/areas). During the 1980's , problems of progression were particularly evident, with qualifications in the same area and at the same level but from different awarding bodies (such as business-related qualifications from BTEC, RSA, City & Guilds, and others) giving quite different degrees of access to higher level general education and training.

In the mid to late 90's, with the growth of research and policy interest in structural problems (progression, access etc), much national policy effort (Dearing, QCA development effort) has been directed at opening up effective progression through:

- development of a tariff system in the Universities and Colleges Admissions Service (UCAS) which enhances parity of esteem between vocational and academic qualifications. The UCAS tariff recognises (by allocating to qualifications points which can be accumulated for entry to higher education)
- identification of gaps in the system where no suitable qualifications exist, with the subsequent development of qualifications which fill them
- development of access provision for higher education, where candidates without the required prior qualifications can gain more readily entry to higher education
- increasing alignment in the assessment regimes, content and form of qualifications across the system; for example: the application of common criteria relating to suitable balance of internal and external assessment; common 'sizing' of units and modules; common criteria relating to quality assurance. These contribute to enhanced alignment of the form and content of qualifications, but enhances also credit equivalence and relative social status

Underlying trends

The conclusion of this analysis is that there is a wide range of different ways in which international dimensions are being incorporated into policy and development work on qualifications and national qualifications systems. These are not exclusively linked to issues of labour mobility, but include national governments using transnational comparisons to legitimate innovation in their own nations' systems.

Of crucial importance are changes in the degree to which national systems are being controlled by national governments, and whether some developments in transnational qualifications are prompting an important shift in the locus of control.

The abiding question for national governments must be whether key characteristics of a coherent qualifications system (quality, access, progression, and coverage) can continue to be secured in the face of the change of subtle and explicit moves towards internationalisation of qualifications.

Internationalisation – what are the possibilities?

Jørn Søgaard, ACIU, Copenhagen

The article discusses the conceptual framework of internationalisation and, building on a Danish systems context, describes some of the opportunities for curriculum and school development in an internationalisation process of Danish vocational education and training colleges.

Different perceptions of internationalisation

We use the word internationalisation as if we agree on what it means. However, when one asks various people what they understand by internationalisation, it turns out that different things are understood by the term. For some people, internationalisation is synonymous with international activities such as international development projects, the exchange of students or teachers – or some other form of cooperation outside their national borders. Internationalisation, to others, is synonymous with teaching various subjects in English. For yet others, internationalisation is synonymous with systems export. And the list could continue.

One will not find any definitive definition or description of what is meant by the term e.g. reading the aims, for internationalising vocational education and training, of the Danish Ministry of Education. A number of concrete examples are given of what the ministry would like to see, but there is no unequivocal definition. Simple answers, often, cannot be given to complex issues. Even this being the case, a slightly greater degree of clarity on the matter would be helpful all the same.

An attempt will therefore be made here to delineate the central issues of internationalisation. Not by giving an unequivocal or definitive definition of the term. Definitions, among other things, are dependent on the time that gives birth to them.

What is intended here is to give one plausible answer to the question 'what is internationalisation?', as a contribution to the ongoing debate on the subject. Also as an attempt to make the concept easier to deal with. For that is really what the whole thing is about. What is internationalisation? What do we want from it? And how can we implement it and thus reach the goals for this process?

1. Globalisation

In order to get a clearer understanding of what internationalisation is, it would be useful to usse the concept of globalisation as our point of departure. Globalisation is a much better known, better recognised and more broadly used concept.[1]

The terms 'globalisation', 'globalisations' and 'glocalisation' are used by different people in different contexts as umbrella terms for the forces that at present fuel developments at international level. Glocalisation is a portmanteau word derived from globalisation and localisation. It is used by some people to describe certain opposed tendencies in global development.

Examples of these driving forces are e.g. increasing international competition, free capital markets, developments within ICT, the internet, the increasing integration of and convergence within the EU, the introduction of the common European currency, etc., etc.

Globalisation, globalisations and glocalisation are also used to indicate that what is happening everywhere is not the same. There are many different coinages of globalisation – which is why globalisations are referred to. It has certain consequences in India, others in UK, yet others in Germany, etc. The consequences are also felt at the regional and local level – which is why a number of people have begun to use the term glocalisation.

In this article the term globalisation will be used as a term covering all three lines of thought, globalisation, globalisations and glocalisation.

Globalisation, in this sense, covers then developments which almost seems to sweep in over us. When legislation on free capital markets has been politically approved, that has certain consequences. And these come to us, even if we perhaps do not want them – or at any rate, not all of them.

When e.g. Danish banks because of competition in connection with the Single Market, have to slim their operations, get bigger through mergers and acquisitions, and earn more, these developments has both certain positive and certain negative consequences. One of the positive consequences is that interest margins fall, and that customers thus can get a higher interest on deposits or a lower rate when borrowing money – sometimes both. Another positive consequence is that borrowing money becomes easier. There is an intense competition to attract customers.

One of the negative consequences is that when banks are no longer able to earn as much on their interest margin as they previously did, it becomes necessary for them to introduce new types of transaction charges and to sack people. The banks have to close down a considerable number of branches and sack several thousand employees. Advantages do not come unaccompanied. Things are interconnected. The consequences mentioned are also referred to in the EU Commission's white paper on the Single Market.

Another example is the freeing up of intra-European trade. When boundaries are opened, it on the one hand becomes easier to export, and it becomes easier to travel between countries. On the other hand, the tax-free shops have to be closed down, and many haulage companies will no longer need as many shipping agents to deal with customs documents, etc. Development means change. These examples are mentioned to illustrate the fact that globalisation comes to us whether we want it or not. Globalisation with the present international agreements has come to stay.

They are also mentioned to point out that we as individuals, companies, organisations, educational institutions, business sectors and societies will have to address the issue of globalisation. We may choose to do so re-actively, or pro-actively, but address it we must.

2. Internationalisation

Addressing the issue of globalisation is what we understand by the term internationalisation[2]. In this article, internationalisation means the acting of various players in relation to globalisation. When international competition forces the banks to lower the

interest margin, introduce more transaction charges and sack employees, the banks becomes more internationally competitive, and thus more international.

When, because of the Single Market, shipping agencies close border offices, find new areas of business and sack employees, they too do what is necessary because of international competition, and thus become more international. They relate and adapt to the new international conditions.

Used in this way, internationalisation is a term which covers the acting of various players in relation to globalisation – whether the players adopt a re-active or a pro-active stance. The term internationalisation thus covers as high a degree of complexity and dynamism as globalisation itself.

Why should we involve ourselves with internationalisation?

Globalisation brings about changes and, in certain cases, even drastic changes, but why should we interest ourselves or worry about that? Why can we not just remain indifferent?

Because when development brings change, the important thing must be to exploit the opportunities that development bring – and try at the same time to mitigate the potential negative effects which developments also may bring.

No matter whether we decide to exploit possibilities or to mitigate possible negative effects, it must be of interest to help create and shape developments – rather than just to be re-active.

I.e. if we wish to adopt a pro-active stance to globalisation, we do not involve ourselves in internationalisation for its own sake but because vocational education and training has to be updated on an ongoing basis in relation to developments taking place in society. Developments fuelled by changes both in our own country and at international levels.

3. The aims for internationalisation of vocational education and training

Internationalisation of vocational education and training used in this way is thus not an end in itself but rather a means to achieve several ends. The overall aim to which this internationalisation is to contribute is – and must be – the achievement of the general aims for education and training, which in Denmark are:

- to enable individuals to create a good life for themselves both at work and off-work (the individual consideration)
- to ensure a well-qualified labour force that can contribute to the growth and development of companies and enterprises and that can help to maintain Denmark's place in the international competition (the business and labour market consideration)
- to give individuals the chance of participating in the social debate and democratic processes and thereby to contribute to the creation of a dynamic and efficient society (the societal consideration).

This is a free compilation of the intentions of the legislation in Denmark. Internationalisation is then, in Denmark, assessed as being one of several important means of attaining these goals.

4. The various layers of internationalisation

How is it possible to structure our thinking concerning internationalisation? Complex issues easily becomes difficult to grasp.

Among other things, we may divide internationalisation activities according to the level at which they are taking place, be it at macro, meso or micro levels. The structuring according to macro, meso and micro levels is a well known model, used both by sociologists and by economists.

The relevant macro level for internationalisation in Denmark is the level of society. The relevant meso level is that of the company or organisation – and thus the level where educational institutions find themselves. The relevant micro level is that of teaching and learning, or what takes place in the individual classroom, i.e. what the individual teacher does – or does not do – in relation to his or her students.

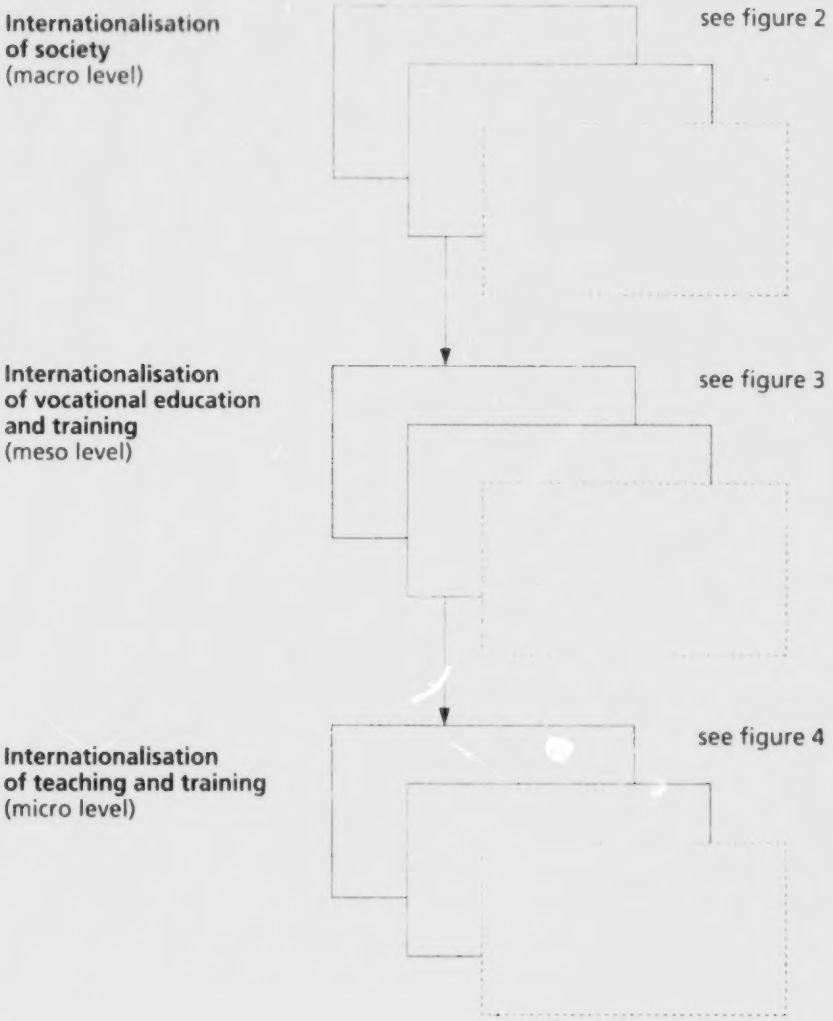
If we accept this convention, it is possible to distinguish between:

- internationalisation of society (fig. 2)
- internationalisation of curricula and of educational institutions (fig. 3)
- internationalisation of teaching, training and learning (fig. 4)

This means that some of the adaptation and development that is necessary in relation to globalisation has to take place at the level of society, some at the level of the individual educational institution, and an important part at classroom level.

Internationalisation as a conceptual framework

Figure 1


Internationalisation of society (macro level)
see figure 2
Internationalisation of vocational education and training (meso level)
see figure 3
Internationalisation of teaching and training (micro level)
see figure 4

Action continua

If we list internationalisation initiatives that are already well-known in many European countries, we get figures 3-4. The action continuum that sums up the initiatives at each level is indicated at the bottom of each figure.

Action continua refer to the action-potential existing in a particular area and make it easier to choose which types of initiatives the individual school, or organisation, wishes to make use of. The continua indicate the initiatives which internationalisation of e.g. business education and training covers p.t..

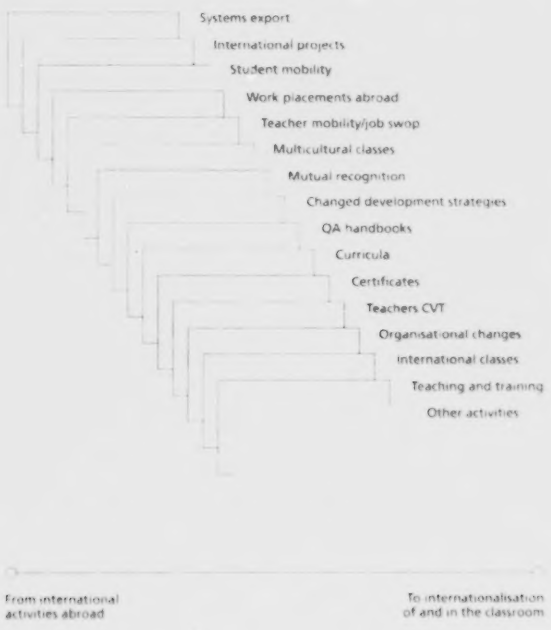
Internationalisation of society (macro level)

Figure 2

Internationalisation at societal level includes internationalisation of political, economic and social systems.

Internationalisation of vocational education and training – types of activities being affected (meso level)

Figure 3



Internationalisation of vocational education and training spans a series of initiatives from activities abroad, to internationalisation of teaching and training in the classroom.

The internationalisation of vocational education and training

This article will concentrate on the areas where schools have direct influence, i.e. internationalisation of curricula, education, training, teaching and learning.

As may be seen from fig. 3, 'The internationalisation of vocational education and training', a wide range of existing activities may be listed for some of the educational institutions. These activities are included in an action continuum ranging from concrete activities abroad, via activities with foreigners here in Denmark, to the internationalisation of day-to-day teaching in the average classroom.

Some of the concrete activities the institutions initiate abroad have by now become well-known, no matter whether we are dealing with international development projects, systems export, work placements abroad, etc.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

If an educational institution wishes to do more at this level, it will presumably mainly be in the organisational and qualifications area as well as in the area of integrating an international perspective in day-to-day teaching – and thus in day-to-day learning. Some of the important questions at this level for schools and colleges to consider are:

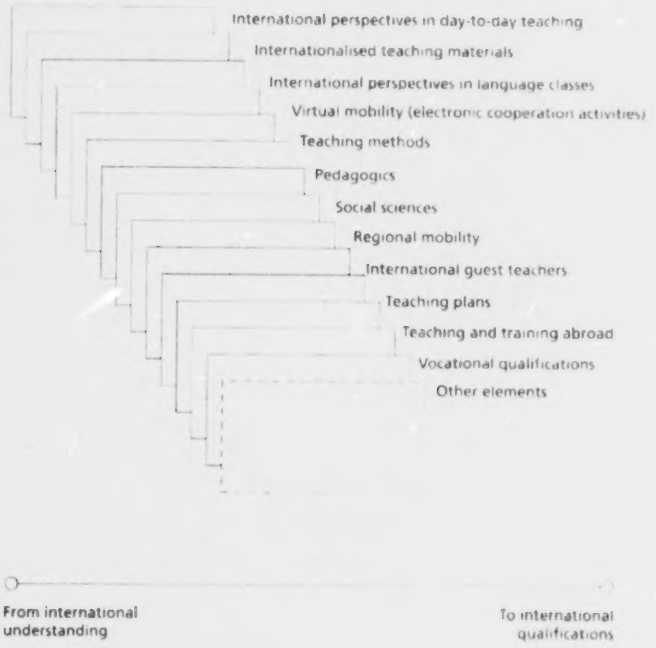
- What are the school's aims and goals concerning internationalisation?
- How may the school organise their internationalisation initiatives so that both more teachers and more students become involved, and motivated, to take part in such initiatives?
- How may a school introduce internationalisation in the individual classroom, so that it affects as many students as possible?

As a means towards achieving these ends, some of the activities mentioned in fig. 3 might be considered.

Internationalisation of teaching

The activities mentioned in fig. 4 can be included in an action continuum ranging from internationalisation that is integrated in day-to-day teaching at one end of the continuum via virtual mobility and regional mobility to international classes and relocated teaching at the other end of the continuum.

Internationalisation of teaching and training – examples of activities (micro level)
Figure 4



Internationalising vocational training and education spans from activities aiming, at one end of the spectrum at acquiring an international awareness and understanding, to activities aimed at acquiring international qualifications, at the other end of the spectrum

In terms of learning, these activities range from a form of teaching that aims to communicate an international perspective and understanding to one which seeks to develop actual international qualifications in the individual.

Some of the main questions, for the individual educational institution and the individual teacher, to consider in this field must be:

- Are all our students and teachers to be interna-tionally oriented?
- What are the requirements for those who are to be internationalised?

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

- Are they to have a certain level of international understanding, or to possess actual international competences?
- How may teaching be differentiated to achieve different aims?

These questions are crucial to the school's process of internationalisation, and thus there is a need to establish the requirements for those involved. Individual colleges might consider using some, or all, of the activities mentioned in fig. 4 to achieve established requirements.

Internationalisation as a cross-curricular subject

If we accept the concept of internationalisation, as meaning our attitude towards and our initiatives in relation to globalisation, it then covers an incredible number of phenomena. It covers, for example, the changed demand for competences and the attitude of educational institutions towards this.

It also covers the upgrading of curricula and of teaching, so that they take account of these altered or new requirements.

When we find it necessary to give students and apprentices an international perspective and understanding, this is also part of internationalisation.

When we find it is necessary in the longer term to internationalise technical skills to a certain extent, this also is part of internationalisation.

When we find it necessary in future to give young people a certain intercultural understanding...

When we find it necessary in future to put a greater emphasis on communicative knowledge and communicative skills of young people...

When in-service training of teachers in this area has to be upgraded...

When the organisation of an educational institution perhaps has to be changed...

When the organisation of work perhaps has to be changed...

When the pedagogical profile of an institution has to be updated in the light of internationalisation...

When teachers perhaps have to function as teams to a greater extent, this may also be a way of introducing the international perspective.

Etc.

5. The need for a changed teaching focus

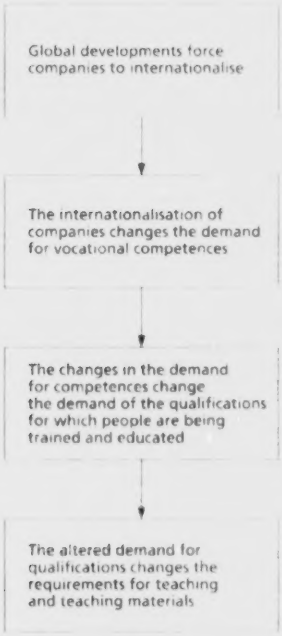
When considering how to update existing teaching, it is natural to ask what changed requirements local and global development involves. In this connection it is important to remember that conditions at local level also are altered by globalisation.

The connection between global developments and challenges in relation to teaching at vocational schools is described in fig. 5. The figure assumes that there is a difference between:

- what companies want
- what courses of education and training represent
- that which takes place in day-to-day teaching.

The connection between the global challenge and changed teaching requirements

Figure 5


Global developments force companies to internationalise
The internationalisation of companies changes the demand for vocational competences
The changes in the demand for competences change the demand of the qualifications for which people are being trained and educated
The altered demand for qualifications changes the requirements for teaching and teaching materials

The logic of the figure is that by looking at the changes that business life is facing we are able to gain a clearer picture of what future qualification requirements will be – and thereby what challenges are facing vocational education and training within this area. In this context it is important to distinguish between competence, qualifications, knowledge, skills and attitudes.

What is the connection between competences, qualifications and teaching?

The connection between two of these key concepts is described by a German professor in Cedefop's journal 'European Training'. The article describes the difference between competence and qualifications[3]. Furthermore, the American researcher Bloom has described what teaching represents.

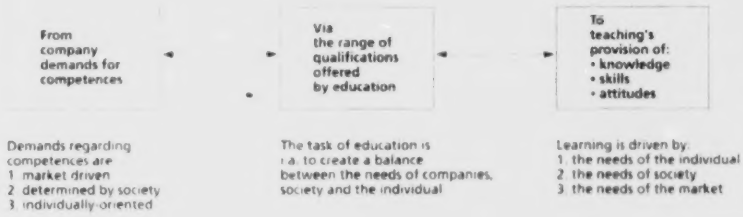
If these two presentations are combined the result is fig. 6.

Here the following terminology is used:

- *competences* as a term for what companies want
- *qualifications* as a term for what a course of education or training produces or represents
- *teaching* as a term for dissemination of knowledge, attitudes and skills.

The connection between the needs of companies, the content of an educational programme and the daily teaching

Figure 6


From company demands for competences
Via the range of qualifications offered by education
To teaching's provision of:
• knowledge
• skills
• attitudes
Demands regarding competences are
1. market driven
2. determined by society
3. individually-oriented
The task of education is i.a. to create a balance between the needs of companies, society and the individual
Learning is driven by:
1. the needs of the individual
2. the needs of society
3. the needs of the market

This terminology provides us with a set of concepts that may be used to understand and describe the influence of globalisation, on the demand for competences, and on the connection between the demand for competences and that which is taught.

When vocational education and training function optimally, they correspond, to alarge extent, to the expectations and needs which companies have. Thus there is a need for a terminology that can distinguish between and describe the connection mentioned.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

How may we use this terminology to say something about future competence requirements?

Using the thoughts about globalisation and internationalisation as our starting point, it is probable that the future job situation for a lot of people in Denmark will be:

- That they *either* find a job in a Danish company situated in Denmark – a company that, at a regional level, is able to compete with the following types of companies listed below
- *Or* that they, in line with the idea of value and supply chains, will come to work for Danish suppliers to major foreign companies
- *Or* that they will find work with a subsidiary to a major multinational company located in Denmark
- *Or* that, for a shorter or longer period, they take a job outside Denmark (either in a Danish-owned subsidiary or a foreign-owned company).

In such job situations it will be necessary for the individual to be able to find his or her way around, get on well, and function in various professional and job-related contexts.

In future, work – as is the case today – will require people to function both as individuals, in relation to colleagues and in relation to professional assignments – only in partially new ways.

Personal interaction – *collaboration* – in the workplace will in all four instances call for social, or cultural, and communicative competences, as well as for international understanding. Without a certain amount of the latter it will be easy to lose the ability to understand the world we are living in. Moreover, the last three instances of job situations will, to a certain extent, call for linguistic competence, intercultural competence and intercultural communicative competence.

Professional interaction – *concrete job situations and specific tasks* – will always call for a solid professional competence, as is the case today. As well as an acceptance of the need for continuing improvement and updating of one's professional competence.

Changes to the nature and organisation of work in the direction of team work, autonomous groups, more decentralisation, less middle management, etc. will call for better communicative and better social skills. Professional interaction in foreign, or foreign-owned, companies will also call for a certain degree of internationalised professional competence.

Even though there are clear signs of convergence (mutual adaptation and rapprochement) in Europe, also within production and production systems, there are still rather large differences in production systems and work organisation in e.g. Denmark, Germany, Portugal, Austria, etc. If one is to be able to enter into various international contexts in Denmark or abroad, there is, ideally, a need for being able to work with various technologies, various types of know-how, various kinds of work organisation, various types of production flow, etc.

In short, there will be a need for people to enter into various production systems professionally. And to understand that the different systems do not have to be better or inferior. They may just be different. And even despite considerable differences, that they may in principle be equally effective by virtue of the context they are a part of.

By context is here meant the individual country's, or region's, legislation, wage levels, agreements, infrastructure, etc.

A Dane abroad

Let us look at a concrete example of competence requirements in a job situation. This is the story of a female apprentice chéf who had been fortunate enough to get a work-placement at a restaurant in Paris with two stars in the Michelin Guide. In this guide, three stars signifies the finest haute cuisine possible.

The apprentice had received her (good) basic training in Denmark and also had a certain amount of concrete experience from her apprenticeship in Denmark, where the cuisine of her Danish employer definitely enjoyed a good reputation. There were no doubts concerning the proficiency of this particular apprentice.

She left for France, was well received at the restaurant and worked there for about a fortnight. After these first two weeks, she had observed a number of 'strange things' and seen a number of 'inefficient work routines'. Being a good, loyal employee, and in accordance with her Danish cultural norms, she felt she ought to draw the attention of her place of work to this sorry state of affairs. Accordingly the apprentice suggested to these French masters of gastronomy that they should have a meeting in the near future, so that she could explain to these old and 'seasoned' chefs how a kitchen ought to be organised and run!

The story does not narrate whether she was ever able to show her face there again, but we may conclude, at any rate, that she – despite her proven professional competence in a Danish context – lacked intercultural competence, international understanding and, presumably, international professional competence as well. In more mundane terms she lacked certain good manners and some 'Fingerspitzengefühl'.

An example from Denmark

Another example of the developmental requirements we encounter is from Denmark. The story has to do with a large public service company which enjoyed considerable respect both at home and abroad. The company was to be privatised and was sold to a major American group, known in USA for how well it treats its employees. Within the first two years after privatisation, more than half of the highly qualified staff had been replaced.

It was too hard for many of the employees to change corporate culture, and too difficult for the company taking over to utilise the considerable human resources at the company's disposal.

6. The competence requirements of tomorrow

To return to the subject of the competence requirements of tomorrow, one could sum up by saying that the outlined globalisation, together with the concomitant internationalisation, will create a demand for:

- updated professional competences (this requirement will always exist)
- international understanding
- internationalised professional qualifications

- increased communicative competence in a national context
- increased social and cultural competences
- increased linguistic competences
- intercultural competence.

For a more detailed description of the need for new qualifications se figure 7.

The international meeting may be perceived as three meetings in one, the personal meeting, the general meeting and the technical or professional meeting. Each meeting demands certain qualifications in order to be successful[4].

The international meeting
Figure 7

Must everybody have international competences in future?

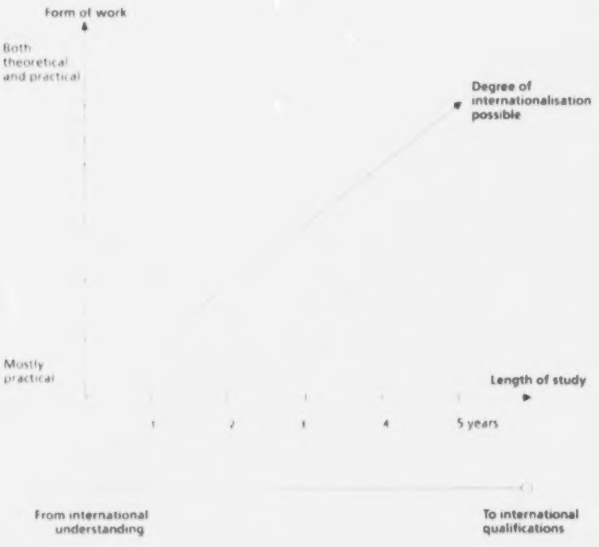
Must everybody have international competences in future? Such an idea would probably be illusory. People today do not all learn the same things, or at the same level. Needs, interests and abilities differ.

Presumably there will be large differences in how much the individual can, wishes to, or must understand the described developments, and what skills the individual must possess.

A differentiation of inter-nationalisation might perhaps be attempted in relation to figures 7 and 8. In principle, the figures could include all levels of learning from week-long courses for unskilled workers to three-year upper-secondary educations.

Every course of education or training must determine where they are to locate themselves within the continuum. At one end students, teachers, administrative staff and management acquire a certain international understanding, and at the other end a considerable degree of international understanding is ideally acquired, along with actual international qualifications and/or competence.

Framework for the internationalisation of teaching and training
Figure 8



The diagram shows that the longer a period of study and the more the education combines academic and practical learning, the easier it will be to internationalise teaching and training.

And the easier it will be to strive for teaching and training, that not only contribute to a certain international understanding, but aim at developing actual international qualifications in the student.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

When it has been decided how much the individual course is to achieve within the various areas, it has to be defined how, and how much, the chosen initiatives are to be integrated into the individual subjects.

7. What about our cultural identities?

Will we lose our own cultural identity as a result of this internationalisation? Not necessarily. We are able to decide that for ourselves. There is a saying: *It is in meeting that which is foreign we get to know ourselves.*

Let us consider an example from learning a new language. When we learn a new language, it forces us to be more aware of our own. The weaker linguistic awareness one has of one's own language, the harder it will normally be to learn another language. The better one is at one's own language, grammar, etc., the easier it will normally be to learn another language.

And even if we learn 2-3 foreign languages, we will not end up creating a completely new mixed language. When we wish to speak German, it then is a question of speaking German; when we wish to speak English, it then is a question of speaking English, etc. If one does not stick to one language at a time, communication becomes, if not impossible, then extremely difficult.

The same applies to cultural and intercultural competence. If one is capable of handling and fitting in well both at managerial levels, in a work gang and in cross-cultural situations, then we also know that the various styles should not be mixed. There is a time for everything.

It is highly likely that the more we learn about 'others', the better we understand ourselves and our own culture. When Danes look at e.g. German culture, they become more aware of their own culture, because in assessing that which is specifically 'German', Danes have to determine what is specifically 'Danish', and likewise with other cultures.

So it is not all that likely that internationalisation will eliminate Danish culture, or any other cultures for that matter, rather the opposite.

8. Summary

We do not intend to deal with the question of implementation of internationalisation in vocational education and training in this article. The issue of implementation is a large topic in itself, and there is a considerable amount of literature concerning itself with implementing change and innovating schools[5].

One of the conclusions we would like to draw, however, is the obvious one that vocational education and training, including teaching, naturally ought to be updated on a regular basis as required by national – *as well as by international* – developments.

What is new in this connection is that it no longer suffices to update e.g. Danish vocational education and training as required by conditions in Denmark. VET in Denmark also has to be updated as required by international developments taking place in countries, and multinational companies, we wish to cooperate with, or compete against. Internationalisation is thus a necessary area of work for the development and improvement of vocational education and training.

Among the challenges globalisation and internationalisation thus gives rise to are the following:

- There is a need for an integrated understanding of the changes in the needs and demands of companies, societies and employees concerning competences.
- There is a need for a conceptual framework that may be used to integrate relevant issues in this context.
- That globalisation and internationalisation, at any rate, create a need for:
    - an understanding of international affairs that enables individuals to find their bearings in the world, and in the age, they live in,
    - an intercultural understanding, including an intercultural communicative competence, that enables individuals to function across cultures,
    - international professional qualifications, or at least an international professional understanding. An understanding that enables individuals to function as employees, or entrepreneurs, in various production systems and various corporate cultures. Irrespective of whether we have to function in an international workplace in our own country, or in a job abroad.

The above conditions create a need for the individual educational institution to ensure that it has defined aims, objectives and goals for its internationalisation efforts, and that each institution determines its internationalisation profile in accordance with these targets, e.g. based on the listed action continua.

On the basis of the aims, objectives and goals set by the institution, and the chosen internationalisation profile, relevant initiatives and implementation may then be planned. Initiatives that ideally will internationalise the institution, its staff, its curriculum, the day-to-day teaching and thus the learning that takes place.

References

1. For a more in-depth treatment of globalisation and glocalisation, see e.g.: Global Modernities: Mike Featherstone, Scott Lash and Roland Robertson (eds). London 1997.

2. For other treatments of the phenomenon of internationalisation see also: Internationalisation of Higher Education. OECD document series. CERI 1996; and: National Policies for Internationalisation of Higher Education in Europe. Stockholm 1997. ISSN 1400-9498.

3. Kompetence: begreb og fakta [Competence: concept and facts], p. 8. Erhvervsuddannelse/ Europæisk Tidsskrift 1/94. Cedefop 1994.

4. Figure 7 is based on: Et fælles begreb om kvalifikationer by Bruno Clematide and Claus Agø Hansen. Danish Technological Institute, Copenhagen 1996; and the list of key skills developed by Qualifications and Curriculum Authority: www.qca.org.uk, UK 1999; and my own work.

5. E.g. Changing the School Culture. Per Dalin with Hans-Günther Rolff, London 1993. And: Innovating Schools. CERI, OECD 1999.

Sources

1. The participants in ACIU's FoU project: 'God praksis for internationalisering af erhvervsuddannelserne'. [Good practice in the internationalisation of vocational education and training].

2. The Danish Ministry of Education's R&D publications.

3. The participants in ACIU's EU project: 'Globalisation and the need for Internationalising VET in Europe' with representatives from seven EU countries.

Education and training in times of globalisation

Michael Brater, GAB – Gesellschaft für Ausbildungsforschung und Berufsentwicklung (Society for Training Research and Occupational Development), Munich

Mr Brater in his article looks at globalisation and some of its consequences for vocational education and training systems. Having identified this complex relationship Mr Brater then moves on to analyse what consequences these development processes have for skill requirements.

1. Prologue

As many words have already been written and spoken on the nature and impact of what we currently term 'globalisation', I can restrict myself here to a brief summary:

Economic activity which is reaching out ever further across the globe, which obeys only the laws of the market and is increasingly slipping beyond the controlling and managing grasp of national bodies, coupled with the corresponding technology, is bringing about radical structural changes in work and the work society which have far-reaching consequences for politics, social order and the personal lives of individuals. The most important driving force behind this global concatenation triggered by the economy is an increase in labour productivity of such gigantic proportions that it has famously been forecast that in the 21st century, 20% of the workforce of the industrial countries would be capable of meeting the global demand for goods and services while for the other 80% the idea of full-time employment would be an anachronistic dream. As Hannah Ahrendt famously said, the work society is running out of work – a hypothesis which explains the worrying phenomenon observable for several years now of increasing unemployment going hand in hand with sustained economic growth, and a hypothesis too which scoffs at the ineffectiveness of traditional political ideas of trying to create jobs by means of schemes to promote economic growth.

If we focus on the consequences of such development trends for employment, we must consider both on the work which remains (i.e. for the 20%) and the circumstances of those who have been 'relieved' of this work (the 80%).

The structural change taking place in employment under the current pressure for rationalisation has been discernible for several years now and can therefore be relatively accurately described. Its most conspicuous features are:

- the formation of buyers' markets with the corresponding demands on corporate flexibility and customer service;
- the spread of information and communication technologies into all work processes;
- an increasing rate of innovation in all fields of the economy;
- new forms of corporate and work organisation, which are radically geared to creating added value (e.g. lean management).

The societal manifestations and implications of an increasingly large work-free domain are as yet less clearly identifiable and there are conflicting opinions on the subject, not least because developments here will depend on political interventions of a still indeterminate nature. Some people anticipate that even the industrial countries will not be spared mass unemployment, with redundancies being meted out on a grand scale and the corresponding social polarisation; others have confidence in a redistribution of employment to be achieved by reducing the individual's overall work time throughout life; both views suggest in the final analysis a dramatic increase in the amount of work-free or leisure time. For this reason there is a widespread view that work (in the sense of gainful employment) will lose its significance as the raison d'être for many institutions and as the source of identity for individuals. In its place, there could be an expansion of new forms of work not geared to earning a livelihood, for example in the 'third sector' (Rifkin) (cf. 'civic work', U. Beck). The breakdown of the hitherto predominant forms of full-time employment is also clear from the increase, observed inter alia by U. Beck, in 'precarious' employment typified by unclear occupational status, frequent switches between employment, self-employment and non-employment, and the loss of any consistent occupational identity.

2. Globalisation and individualisation

The impact of this structural change on the individuals affected and their living and working conditions can be seen as part of and simultaneously the culmination of a much broader, secular trend which sociologists have termed the 'individualisation process'. This is a phenomenon whereby, since the beginning of modern times, the dominant societal orders and value systems, the prescribed models and standards, have lost their legitimating and orienting power for the individual and today exist side by side – interchangeable, detained and arbitrary. The individual's reasoning and actions have gradually been freed from what previously shaped society and had been unquestioned by the members of that society, namely the standards, structures, rules and belief systems which had stamped the individual from outside, penetrating the depths of his life and personality structures.

The great communal certainties and givens conferred by the Church and the State, by shared world views and value systems gradually fell apart, making room as they did so for a variety of relatively non-binding options and thus making the individual rely on his own judgement. The actions of the individual find ever less guidance from prescribed and clear standards and certainties, they are always carried out under conditions of uncertainty and on his own responsibility. For the individual, therefore, the individualisation process has an inherent element of tension and is characterised by a fundamental *ambivalence*: because of the increasing powerlessness of institutions, the individual has been liberated in his actions from all those powers which previously gave him guidance from outside; he can make choices and take his own decisions on his life and actions – but he pays for this freedom through a pronounced loss of orientation, through the actual need to take his own decisions, and this means *having* to choose between a range of options and then having to accept the full risk incurred by that choice. This problem of orientation and decision-making is the price of freedom and at the same time pinpoints the main challenge which freedom entails for the individual: having to orient himself from within in the absence of

orientation from his surroundings. The ship is sailing in rough seas and deep fog and the compass has failed.

The individualisation process has already affected daily life: think of the numerous theories on how children should be brought up, for example, and of the sense of uncertainty which they leave with those who actually face the task of bringing up children; or of the variety of possible and justifiable ways today of setting up partnerships and families, which require of those concerned that they have no traditions or social norms to rely on and instead have to agree on what is right for them and then make it work.

Looking at the globalisation-induced changes in the structure of work discussed above it is not difficult to detect traces of individualisation there too; individualisation has thus also reached the domain of work in society:

- *The focus on the customer* means that work is no longer geared first and foremost to *professional or corporate standards and considerations*, i.e. to external rules and requirements which were clear to the worker and which might even have been imposed against resistance from the market; instead work has to be constantly redefined on the basis of specific and highly personalised interaction with the customer. The worker has to be open-minded and impartial in his dealings with the customer and lay down his own work procedures on the basis of contact with the customer to determine the latter's job specifications. He cannot, therefore, know in advance what is 'right' or 'wrong', and this becomes a highly relative matter which has to be negotiated anew with each customer – and has an impact on all corporate procedures which increasingly rely on being able to respond promptly and highly flexibly to largely customised specifications instead of adhering rigidly and over long periods to a fixed set of procedural rules. The workers thereby gain some freedom from repetitive work procedures as they have to be ready and able to introduce variety into their work and adjust relatively quickly to new situations. One of the implications of this is that their skill profile resembles less and less the template of any given set of activities.

- The inexorable spread of *information and communication technologies* into every nook and cranny in the workplace signifies that anything which can be computerised will be computerised, i.e. taken over by a machine. But anything is computerisable provided it follows a clear algorithm, i.e. a regular IF-THEN sequence (Weizenbaum). Included here, however, are all clear professional rules, all rule-based expertise, all generalisable know-how – in other words the core of what used to define craftsmanship and workmanship, which after all was a matter of knowing what was the 'right' thing to do under given circumstances. This element of human labour is being completely taken over by computers. The jobs which remain for human labour are consequently the non-computerisable, the non-rule-based elements. They include anything which is unforeseeable, unplannable, unexpected, uncertain, anything which cannot be calculated on the basis of rules or cannot be fitted into existing known situations, anything which is new, but also every item of open communication, every social encounter from which something creative is expected. Once the computer has completed its conquest, humans will be left with the 'non-defined activities, the creative, entrepreneurial and communicative activities which develop as a result of communion with their environment and are

constantly being reinvented' (Ch. Lutz), while all definitively modellable activities will be delegated to the machines.

- As the pace of innovation is today far faster than the pace of generational change, the 'occupation' in its classical format as an occupation for life is being replaced by an occupational biography which covers an often discontinuous and generally unplannable and unforeseeable sequence of changes of occupation, periods of learning anew, periods of reorientation, etc. R. Sennett cites as a US statistic a total of 11 changes of occupation during a 40-year working life, and in light of the associated need for flexibility he asks how, under such conditions, anything which is durable, fixed, and binding could have any value at all. Traditional standards and virtues such as loyalty to an occupation and an employer, commitment to a task, reliability, a long-term perspective on life, or even things such as occupational experience and career-mindedness have long since been at odds with the realities of working life and no longer provide guidance insofar as no-one can advise anyone today on how he should conduct himself in order to be successful in his occupation. It is well known that no occupational group can today claim to be effectively protected against unemployment, but on the other hand one can be fairly certain that the knowledge and skills acquired during initial vocational training will not be adequate to last a lifetime. This also means that the classical occupational trajectory involving a period of learning at the beginning of working life followed by the real business of work during adulthood is no longer a viable structuring principle for a career. Future trajectories will resemble an open sequence of disparate and successive periods of learning and working which have been 'composed' into a biography.

- Finally, new management techniques and contemporary forms of work organisation are taking the individualisation process into the workplace where, in the wake of a serious quest for value-added, traditional hierarchies and the formalised work procedures which traditionally brought order to the operations are being softened or even abandoned. Here again, the worker is being deprived of the firm handholds which traditionally guided his actions and he is being expected instead to operate autonomously and on his own responsibility within a largely autonomous team of workers, producing together with the other team members more or less that which in earlier days was prescribed by his superiors and the objective constraints of the work environment. This phenomenon highlights one important consequence of individualisation particularly well: bringing individuals with autonomy and responsibility together to form a work team (integration) is becoming increasingly difficult to achieve *from outside*, and ultimately has to be carried out by the individuals concerned themselves, who, being the agents of corporate operations, have to determine their own orientations and to some extent deliver those orientations to themselves (e.g. in the form of specimen work). Individualisation also always raises the complementary problem of integrating different viewpoints and needs and in so doing draws attention to a substantial *social* problem of the individualisation process: if the overall context of interaction within which individual staff members carry out their respective tasks is no longer determined for them by formalised and standardised procedures for those tasks and by instructions given by superiors, then the staff members must determine that context themselves on the basis of consultation, coordination and agreement.

46

Globalisation, as we have seen, not only subjects work (i.e. the remaining work) to profound structural change but also creates extensive work-free time and work-free phases of life for ever more individuals – admittedly usually still against their will at the present time. But here too, there is also clear evidence of individualisation:

- Regardless of whether it occurs voluntarily or by compulsion, this 'release' means a substantial increase in 'free time', i.e. in time that is free from the constraints and rules of work and, if it exceeds the amount of time required for other necessities unrelated to work, actually has to be filled and shaped by people themselves on their own initiative. Just how hard this is in reality is apparent from any study into the psychosocial problems of the unemployed, and our leisure industry naturally does all it can to provide substitute compulsions in order not to let too great a degree of helplessness set in (providing, of course, those who have been 'liberated' are still solvent). Despite all the problems here, it is, nevertheless, important to recognise that perhaps for the first time in history, not just a small social elite but relatively broad masses of people are faced with considerable periods of time in the course of their lives which are free of immediate necessities and which they need to fill autonomously and individually, periods of time therefore that contain the opportunity but also the requirement for people to take decisions regarding their own actions from within themselves, to make plans and define ways of proceeding.

- With the relativisation of working for a living and the emergence of new forms of work, one of, or perhaps even *the* central institution of society that has provided support and orientation for the past two hundred years is starting to crumble, a development which is witnessed by the number of other societal institutions and systems that are starting to totter in the face of this relativisation of gainful employment, from State taxation through to social insurance systems. More than a few politicians and journalists are currently proclaiming the 'end of the Welfare State' as a consequence of the structural change which work is undergoing and demanding that the State withdraw in general from the tasks of providing for its citizens and protecting them from risk in order to leave more room for people to look after themselves and use their own initiative. It is apparent here how crassly neo-liberal politics culminates directly in individualisation or *is* in fact individualisation induced by political intent.

- Development trends such as 'civic work' or work in the 'third sector' serve to underscore the decline of working for a living as an institution, even though it is still necessary to call by the name of work something which does not constitute gainful employment and does not serve the purpose of sustaining one's own existence. It is something that is akin to 'voluntary work', which one has to want to do and to pursue independently of the need to earn an income, but which is still nevertheless 'work', something which does not simply serve one's own pleasure but which may also entail effort, may involve obligation and a readiness to accept responsibility, etc. Above all it is work, the purpose and meaning of which is recognised, apprehended and defined by the individual himself. Civic work demands something from the individual which does not actually exist, according to neo-liberal and free market ideas, namely to work without any direct self-interest or without direct personal gain (some authors hasten to point to the mechanisms of a non-monetary economy, e.g. Georg Franck). To work and to earn an income are becoming, according to the observations of Rifkin and Beck inter alia, two

47

quite separate matters which will not remain linked for much longer, a circumstance that would also herald the end of goods-creating work (in the Marxist sense), and also therefore a revolution in the structures of societal control and personal motivation, so that once again the emphasis will be on decisions and desires originating from the individual where impersonal constraints and mechanisms once held sway.

- The increasing manifestation of 'precarious working conditions' means that not only will traditional occupations change radically and in part disappear, but that *occupationality*, i.e. the recognised 'occupation' as a structuring and organisational principle, which largely defined the mobilisation of labour, at least in Central Europe, is crumbling and disappearing. Instead of self-contained occupational profiles, increasingly in Europe there is a whole range of activities which are taken up for short periods and relinquished again relatively easily before moving on to the next job, which may be completely different from the previous one. The skilled professional is being replaced by a 'jobholder' who is constantly changing jobs and is therefore permanently relearning. K. Geißler observes that 'Transience is replacing industry and proficiency' and occupations are developing into 'skills packages' with a relatively short shelf life, which frequently circumvent the often long-winded procedures of State regulation and order. In principle increasing numbers of people today have to compose their own quite individual 'occupation' in their biographies and hence arrive at an absolutely individual set of occupation-related qualifications, the unifying and common links of which are provided not by the formal occupational profile but by the personal biography. What this development fundamentally means is that: *the concept of occupation is today replaced by the concept of occupational biography; in the place of the predefined 'occupation' template comes a process involving a work-related life trajectory which can potentially be shaped by the individual himself.*

All the patterns outlined here entail a substantial increase in the need for the individual to *organise his own private and professional life* where the institutions that traditionally constructed the individual's biography are withdrawing. The trend is for the individual to have to shape his own life according to his own values and notions of relevance, take responsibility for his own life, take hold of it himself where the old structures that once gave direction, handhold and meaning increasingly fall away.

3. Consequences for general and vocational education and training

Against the background of these developments, the status and function of educational institutions – both school and vocational training – are substantially altered. In the past the primary legitimacy for regarding these as special and distinct establishments for learning, separated from 'actual' life or from the 'real' working world, derived from the fact that they were able to make reference to the needs and requirements of 'later life' or real jobs. Separate educational and training institutions which are primarily effective at the beginning of life and seek to provide preparation for later (adult) life, are dependent on this later life running according to reasonably constant principles, structures and orientations imposed on the individual which also thereby indirectly steer and determine the efforts of the institutions themselves.

To the extent, however, that later life and work no longer manifest such reliable structures and principles, but are highly individualised, the education and training institutions face a fundamental legitimacy crisis. If the requirements and expectations of life and the working world for which the educational institutions wish to provide preparation are no longer given and clear-cut, education and training run the risk of completely bypassing these requirements in the education and training they deliver. They threaten to turn into self-sufficient, at best anachronistic phantom institutions which no longer bear any relation to societal realities. Perhaps this may be the underlying reason why schools today, in the judgement of many observers, can no longer find the strength to perform an educational function and have retreated instead to a process, always in itself problematic, of imparting knowledge as a type of ersatz legitimacy, while traditional vocational education and training, in the face of the disappearance of occupations and the life trajectory shaped by the occupation, are likewise losing the central orientation that provided their legitimacy and gave them meaning. If increasing numbers of people perform jobs that run right across the traditional occupational demarcations, and the bundle of qualifications which a person needs to perform a particular task corresponds less and less to the stated occupational profile but arise instead from the requirements of the concrete task, then one is forced to ask what sense it makes at all now to place a phase of intensive training before the beginning of real professional life, since it has become impossible to predict what demands this professional life will in fact make (apart from the fact that it will certainly be quite different from what is currently provided for in the vocational training curricula).

Education and training systems therefore have a hard job in gearing their contents and procedures to what will be needed 'later' or what people need to learn for their later lives, a fact which confronts schools in particular with a legitimacy crisis. This applies not just to the knowledge and qualifications imparted, but more particularly to value positions, basic orientations underlying actions and those things which were once 'virtues', because it is in precisely this area that the insoluble ambivalence of any commitment becomes all too apparent to the school pupil or trainee: should one be interested in one's work, use it to gain connection and motivation from oneself – or is it better not to get too involved with it, keep one's distance and turn to other jobs when the right time comes? What are teachers and trainers to teach young people now that it is all too clear that their experience and skills have very little to do any more with what confronts young people?

This crisis faced by education and training becomes particularly apparent in the context of the classical orientation of educational institutions to learning goals with clearly defined content: such precisely defined goals go astray or become questionable. But, on the other hand, *totally new learning requirements* emerge, which could well lead to a reorientation of educational and training institutions without negating the degree of individualisation achieved in society and working life; on the contrary, there is no disputing the fact that the reorientation of education and training can succeed only if it seriously tackles the individualisation processes following in the wake of globalisation.

From the point of view of the individual, individualisation, as has been shown, means that everywhere clear rules and imposed orientations for action are disappearing and that it is now *necessary to act individually according to the situation or on the basis of one's own decisions and guidelines*. This development is highly *ambivalent:*

On the one hand it brings a substantial gain in personal freedom and opportunities to shape one's own life, albeit at the price of many imponderables and a loss of security. Both in work and in personal life determination from outside is tending to be replaced by more possibilities for self-determination; where the individual was once simply the enforcer of imposed rules and directions, almost a higher form of automaton, now he has the opportunity to go his own way more, to fashion his own circumstances – in his work as well – from within himself, indeed he is expected to be in a position to do the right thing without clear directives, to master contradictory situations on his own, to deal with ambivalence and to orient himself not to norms and rules but to that which the situation suggests to him and also indeed requires of him. The professional world today, more than at any other time in the past, offers manifold opportunities for the working person to concentrate individually on realising *his* life's work in terms of content and pursue in his biography the question of what *his personal intentions* really are and what tasks he wants to make his own, in other words, what 'I' really want. The options are many and varied not just in terms of the orientation of professional life but increasingly also an orientation which consciously seeks a focus to life outside working in an occupation or working for a living.

On the other hand, it is by no means certain whether the outcome of individualisation will be that its inherent opportunities for freedom will actually be grasped or whether it will not rather represent for the individual stress, uncertainty and a loss of social security. The basic question every individual asks himself today is whether, in the face of the decline of the institutions that give order to life, he will be at the mercy of chance influences and forces, or whether he will indeed be able to get his life in hand *himself*, to establish its inner coherence. And to incorporate in himself the many varied, often precarious professional experiences he encounters. For the new situation *threatens* the unity and entirety of the person if that person fails to bind these disparate experiences together to form a whole. The entire coherence of life can be threatened if the 'jobholder' is not successful in fusing whatever confronts him from outside into a unified whole and creating *inner* continuity. It is possible to see here what quite real personality-splitting trends are inherent in the changes to working life, what attack on the unity and integrity of the person it can represent, and exactly where efforts to prevent this happening must be positioned: only personalities with strong egos and minds of their own will succeed in this task and much will depend on how much room people find and use for their own initiative and their own activity, to what extent, in other words, working people do not simply remain reactive in this development but can be 'proactive', how far they manage, to use common parlance, to be not just a potato, but also a cook.

Whether individualisation proves to be a blessing or a curse is still therefore an open question, and it may well turn out that it is impossible to grasp the opportunities for freedom and self-determination that are inherent in it, that they will be frittered away. Whether this happens, however, whether the opportunities offered by individualisation will come to fruition, also depends quite fundamentally on *how far individuals can realise this degree of freedom at all in their actions*, how far therefore they have the skills actually *to do* everything that is demanded of them, and also what is offered to them in the way of possibilities. Thus everything depends here on a question of skills (in the widest sense) and *therefore individualisation is in the most conspicuous sense an educational question.*

The key issue is whether people will be placed in a position to master individualisation or whether individualisation for them will simply be too much, making them retreat into new dependencies, ideally into the protective arms of 'strong men' and into the lap of authoritarian ideologies that order the world clearly and according to simple patterns.

Thus while individualisation takes from the institutions of education and training their learning goals and hence in essence their traditional legitimacy, it reveals to them at the same time a tremendous new task, namely that of *developing precisely those skills that are needed to enable individualisation to be mastered in all areas of life*. In school this means primarily *the general, fundamental prerequisites enabling individuals to act independently*; in training it goes beyond this to include the skills that enable *these prerequisites to be put into concrete form and applied in the many varied situations of professional activity*. A new level of skills is moving to the centre of all educational activity, namely skills that are constituent to action; it is not so much a case of knowing how to do something in particular – e.g. how to build a traffic light switching system – as of being able to develop and demonstrate a way of proceeding in uncertain situations that is based on one's own orientation, and to do so in discussion with others with whom every individual constantly constitutes his own realities.

It is possible to describe such skills approximately and with examples. They doubtless include a well trained, objective perceptive faculty that is able to pick up and decode original situations, and also intuition and imagination to take in what has been perceived and to discover something new in it. Also included here is the skill to maintain a balance between nearness and distance, between connecting with the thing and retreating from it in order to obtain an overview and develop consciousness of it. It is a matter of learning how to learn and essentially this means: learning how one can approach the unknown without fixed preconceptions and expectations, how one gets to know it and become familiar with it, and how one finds out through dealing with it what the thing or situation or the other person actually needs and how one can then actually carry this out on one's own initiative without any directives from outside. It is necessary to learn a way of acting that does not rely on clear rules or fixed handholds, but which can develop freely and creatively out of initially undefined, open situations – a type of action that is perhaps a lot less like what was formerly regarded as 'work' but instead shares some of the powerful characteristics of what one is accustomed to regard as artistic play or playful artistry. Essentially it involves learning how to make one's own decisions objectively and impartially out of such processes and under certain circumstances do what one feels right even in the face of (internal and external) resistance. This will not be possible without personality-oriented training and guidance for self-training that frees the individual from his unconscious external and internal ties and enables him to live and act as dictated by the self. And finally the prerequisites of freedom also include broad social skills, since individuals must be able to understand and perceive each other and reach accommodations with each other out of a process of free encounter without the orientation framework provided by prevailing social norms and role structures.

The main thrust of vocational education and training in future should be on transferring these general foundation skills to the working world, and to show and encourage trainees to act accordingly in this working world. Here once again it is a question of being able to

identify problems and tasks freely and develop an appropriate plan of campaign to resolve them, being able to put the plan into practice and to monitor and correct it self-critically and autonomously. In future vocational learning should wherever possible be geared less to a traditional occupational profile, the composition of which grows ever more problematic and arbitrary, but concentrate instead on complexes of concrete, real *assignments* (which can also of course continue to be bundled together in some form into occupational profiles of sorts, the advantage of which in terms of the future lies in the fact that they are established on their own institutional level 'above' the many different and constantly changing activities). In order to be able to manage individualised working conditions, workers of the future will also naturally need technical skills and concrete technical expertise, but perhaps less in the form of a self-contained technical occupation or trade than a well-filled but clearly unfinished 'toolbox' that can be extended and expanded at any time and that the worker has to learn to administer and manage on his own. There is no longer any fixed canon of qualifications that defines what 'skilled work' is; all that training can do is to impart as many basic skills as possible that the worker must subsequently be able to apply to solve the widest variety of problems on an autonomous basis. Support for this view comes from the fact that technical qualifications have become largely independent of a particular intended purpose, the latter having to be defined separately in each case. The image of training as a process of 'filling a toolbox' illustrates that qualifications acquired in the training process are not fixed in terms of their application but are more or less freely disposable. But there must be someone who takes decisions and that can only be the worker himself, determining for what purpose and in what form his capacity for work is to be used. This ability is part of his professional competence.

Vocational education and training today must prepare the trainee not for an occupation but for *working life*. But this must not of course be misunderstood in terms of the concept of an occupation for life. It indicates that training must be geared to a working life that is unpredictable, full of events and turns, and that it must equip learners at the same time with the skills they need to cope with the requirements of the course of working life today. These include, inter alia, making learners aware of the uncertainties of working life, of the likelihood of repeated change and the need to shape their working lives themselves, take hold of it and regard themselves as instigators of their own intentions and initiatives. K. Geißler talks of the need to deliver three central bundles of skills in training:

- 'Plurality expertise': everyone has to learn to deal with the widest variety of problems and uncertainties, to handle conflicts and ambivalence and *always to look at the world from several perspectives*;
- 'Transition skills': everyone has to learn *to manage without fixed cornerstones in one's life*, to deal meaningfully with what has passed and move on, to embark on the new and master transition situations;
- 'Skills related to process structures': everyone must acquire the skill to *draft a life plan* and to adjust anew each time to the vicissitudes of life; to do this one needs the ability for self reflection and self observation, the ability to see oneself realistically and the ability to draw the right conclusions from this for one's own life.

Learning remains a lifelong task which is in no way restricted to learning in special initial and continuing training situations. *All work must be grasped and understood as a potential learning situation.* The classical separation of learning and working (a consequence of the recognised 'occupation' as an organisational principle) is no longer valid; all work must be regarded as a learning situation and all future workers must be able and ready to embark afresh on a situation each time and manage the situation flexibly using their technical skills. It is perfectly possible here that there will be tensions and conflicts between different orientations and expectations which cannot be resolved but can only ever be evened out, and which the worker must be able to *weigh up*.

The upshot of all this is that workers in future will not only be required to master their specialist area; they will also be continually expected to reflect on the *application* of their technical expertise, to deal with contradictions and ambivalence and to substitute a 'both-and' for an 'either-or' approach. Everywhere ground that was once thought to be firm is proving to be deceptive and unsteady, even the foundations of science and technology, and it is for this reason that vocational training must guard against dispensing apparent certainties and aim instead to teach trainees to deal with uncertainty.

4. A few practical conclusions

Presented below in conclusion are a few ideas as to how the reorientation of education and training discussed here could be implemented in practice.

Five essential approaches can be identified for schools. Some of which have already been tested experimentally.

- The *formal pedagogic* approach offers the possibility of selecting teaching material not (only) on the basis of what will be needed later (which is impossible to answer at present) but deliberately according to *what skills pupils can develop through the process of engaging with the material.* This immediately shifts attention in the school context to the level of skills involving the ability to act, and it becomes clear that the primary task of schools is not to deliver material but to develop skills.
- In the case of the likewise well-known but under-used teaching method of *learning by discovery* pupils are presented with open assignments that they are required to carry out autonomously; in the process the role of the teacher changes from instructor to escort through the learning process which the pupil is undergoing and which is actively driven by him. To a certain extent the method mirrors on a laboratory scale the situation that will face the individual under the conditions of individualisation. At the same time it enables the individual to learn to behave independently according to the task in hand, to gather together himself what he needs to solve the task, to tackle a problem on his own and to develop the courage and self-confidence that will prevent him being overwhelmed in uncertain situations.
- In order to get away from a one-sided and misleading cognitive orientation, schools should turn instead on a broad front to *action-based teaching* which goes beyond imparting knowledge and enables pupils at the same time to practise many different skills, skills relating to working methods and social and personal skills, which should also be integrated deliberately into the learning programme.

- Action-based learning is significantly boosted if it takes place not in fictitious school situations but in *real-life situations*. Seen in this light school could completely change its traditional face and cease to be an institution existing 'alongside' life, becoming instead an institution that turns real life into the real learning venue by deliberately opening it up for learning through appropriate advance preparation and subsequent evaluation and through a process of accompanying pupils as they learn in reality in and from life. Thus school would once again become a model for that which has today become a reality in adult life, namely for the new unity of living and learning, working and learning, and fixed but problematic action orientations and value concepts would be replaced by the elementary ability to learn.
- Finally school should retrieve *artistic exercise* from its completely marginal position in today's teaching scenario and turn it into a central field of learning, given that the artistic process is a sequence of actions whose structure coincides to an astonishing extent with what has been described above in relation to the requirements for acting under the conditions of individualisation. As a consequence, practical artistic activity can become a central field of learning and training for independent action in the way that is required in times of individualisation. There would inevitably be a sacrifice to be made in terms of knowledge – but schools are already well on the way to becoming helpless as imparters of knowledge.

The points outlined above also apply, suitably adapted, to vocational and technical education and training, particularly in relation to formal pedagogics, discovery learning and learning in real situations. If it becomes impossible to predict in training what qualifications will be required in an occupation in five or ten years time, training should not attempt to submit to such an unreasonable demand at all but should concentrate instead on to some extent general, exemplary, transferable and readily generalisable technical skills. Training should also select technical content on the basis of *what one can learn from it*, above all, what action-based skills can be practised with it. It is, furthermore, time for in-company trainers finally to acknowledge that the famous four-stage method trains in completely the wrong direction and that it is perfectly possible to apply discovery learning, as for example incorporated in GAB's concept of *personality-oriented training*, in the context of vocational training. After all, training which is generally conducted in practice-related or near-real company situations offers ideal conditions for learning in real situations, which is why there is now widespread consensus in vocational training that in-company training or training on the job is not simply there to enable what has been learned in the apprentice workshop 'on dry land' to be seen in practice, but that this is where the focus of training, in terms of both content and method, must lie. For where else other than in vocational training can the difference between 'being able to' and 'knowing how to' be experienced in such concrete form, or, furthermore, can training make productive use of the essential fact that the requirements and therefore learning opportunities of the new working conditions are precisely those which are needed to cope with individualisation. To this extent working life today provides precisely those opportunities for learning and practising that are needed for modern education and training, although they must be properly developed for vocational training purposes. And finally vocational training should also incorporate in its repertoire a series of new, interdisciplinary skills for which school is too early or for which vocational

training simply presents far better conditions. These include inter alia systematic training in networked thinking, the ability to act on the basis of experience and, last but not least, the skills involved in personal knowledge management, based on the basic ability to distinguish the essential from the inessential.

But a modern, progressive vocational training system needs more than methodic innovations to be able to perform its task; it must also develop structurally. The fact that this will also involve bidding farewell to the traineeship occupation in its old familiar form has already been discussed. What is irritating above all in the construct of these traineeship occupations is their claim to reflect real fields of activity or provide an introduction to them, not, however, the fact that they represent an independent level of the institutionalised setting of person-related qualifications; the latter is still resolutely pertinent today and is in fact tending to become more important and should be addressed far more deliberately. Vocational training could detach itself far more clearly from concrete in-company requirements than it is actually doing (but without losing sight of the company as the decisive learning arena, see above).

Official vocational training policy seeks to take account of the global developments described above, in the course of which the 'occupationality' or occupation-based structure of working is crumbling, by making training more flexible, by enabling individual complexes of qualifications to be acquired unconnected to the occupational profiles in which they were hitherto incorporated and by expanding continuing training and education to enable people, on the basis of a relatively broad, and by today's standards increasingly short period of basic training, to keep specialising anew in a relatively short time frame and on a mobile basis. The trend that goes furthest in this direction at present is the 'modularisation' of vocational training, i.e. its break-up into individual modules which can be customised individually more or less at will (and above all in many different international locations) to form personal skill bundles. Our initial and continuing vocational training world is fast approaching a state in which it will be possible for an individual to put together his training 'à la carte', regardless of the menu sequence specified by the traditional occupational profiles. So it is not necessary to be a 'baker' or a 'veterinary assistant' any more; one can acquire one's own absolutely unique and individual skill profile that has to be perceived and acknowledged as such, regardless of the occupational profile for which one has been certified. Forms of certification need to be found which cannot be misinterpreted as learning goals but which certify and reveal subsequently what the individual can do.

Working life everywhere has now ceased to be a comfortable saloon car which might have been difficult to get into initially but in which, once this was done, one could lean back comfortably in one's seat and look around to see how it carried one safely and reliably to one's destination. It is more like a bicycle where everything depends on what the rider does, and on which one feels all the highs and lows, the ups and downs of a moving landscape next to the skin. Not many cycle routes lead comfortably along the level; many lead over a whole chain of mountain passes and for some riders the course is cross country. In working life in the future it will increasingly be a case of the individual finding his own distinctive way, detached from external notions of normality. He will be able to rely for support less and less on the external structures and rules of the working world and will

have to strive to find the orientation for his actions increasingly from his own laws inherent in his biography. He will be required to work 'in conformity with his biography' and to maintain this biographical principle in the face of the apparent material constraints of the economic and working world. In this sense the vocational training of the future will have to be biographically oriented instead of demand oriented.

The classical occupation promised a measure of protection, the anticipation of a measure of normality, and it embodied a certain claim to happiness and security. The advanced process of individualisation in this respect means on the other hand that the individual stands exposed to the sharp winds of the market, globalisation, radical technical changes, societal atomisation and attacks in the name of shareholder value. There is likely to be little protection afforded him either by professional associations and trade unions or by State social laws, and he will need a great deal of energy, courage and stamina to assert himself in the face of these forces which will seek to treat him and manage him simply as a plaything, as 'human capital' or a 'human resource'. Only the non-conformists, those with strong egos will be able to rise to the challenge and grasp the biographical opportunities offered by the developments outlined above.

Creating the best possible personal conditions for this is the future task of technical and vocational education and training.

The international challenge for vocational education and training

Kim Møller, Oxford Research A/S, Denmark

This article looks at the international challenge. The article was originally produced in 1996 as part of a report specially requested by the Danish Ministry of Educaton from Oxford Research Inc., DK. The article still presents a good analysis of the international economic and competitive challenge facing most of the OECD countries.

Introduction and summary

The world economy is undergoing deep changes. National economies become more and more integrated as a result of increases in trade and foreign investments, new technology and new cross-border modes of cooperation. No countries and only few companies will not be affected by this development.

This process of internationalisation puts Danish companies and its employees up against new challenges and a new reality. From being a stable "Danish" market, the market in Denmark is now part of a global market.

For companies, this involves a change to their environment and competitive situation:

Companies face new types of competition. This is reflected in that the previously stable home market is opened to new competitors and products as trade barriers crumble. At the same time, many companies experience a redefinition of their traditional customer relationship in that they become subcontractors to larger – foreign -companies.

- More companies become active internationally, either in the form of exports or by directly establishing a presence on foreign markets. This applies in relation to traditional near-by markets, as well as to the new markets, primarily in Asia and Eastern Europe.
- The introduction of new technology means that traditional work processes change and are replaced by new modes of cooperation – both in relation to other companies and internally in the individual company. In addition, technology enables a split-up of the production process into geographically separate units, which means, for example, that production work is contracted to low-price areas of the world, while knowledge and technology intensive work stays in the Western industrialised countries.
- Increasing competition and faster product development force companies to think alternatively and innovatively. It is no longer enough to offer good products and services at competitive prices. Companies have to focus on offering "tailored" products and services that cannot be supplied by the competitors.

For employees, this means that their working life changes:

- They have much more international contact in their work. Employees have an increasing amount of direct contact with colleagues in foreign companies; they have to carry out a higher degree of international information retrieval themselves; and a growing number of employees become engaged directly in foreign companies, or get outposted to other countries for shorter or longer periods of time.
- There is an increasing need to adapt to the development of new technology.
- Furthermore, because of new technology and keener competition, work processes change, too, and the knowledge content in the work grows, which means that the work of skilled employees becomes intellectualised. Consequently, employees need to be able to work across traditional trade boundaries – internally in the company and in relation to other companies. Previously standardised routine procedures are replaced by project-oriented assignments, where responsibility is delegated to the individual employee.

In other words, employees need new, broader qualifications that enable them to hold their own in the companies' – and thus their own – international environment. These new, required qualifications could be termed "international competence".

This article deals with the individual elements of the international challenge and the new qualification requirements to be met by employees in the light of this development.

1. Main elements of the international challenge

The core of the international challenge is that more and more companies look to the international markets as a result of:

- international deregulation
- new technology
- growing significance of transnational companies.

To companies, this means that their new competitive situation changes in the form of new required modes of cooperation, new products, new processes in the competition, new competitors and new markets.

The new competitive situation

The world economy today is in a phase of extensive deregulation, in which technically, physically and politically determined trade barriers crumble. The rules of the game on the global market are defined to a greater extent by international organisations such as World Trade Organisation, NAFTA and EU, whose purpose is to promote world trade and the free exchange of goods and services. The consequence of international deregulation is that more employees – or the same employees – have more international contact, either because the company is pushed into new markets, or because the home market opens up to international competition.

This trend is further supported by new technology. Because of technological advances, the product lifetime curve gets shorter and shorter; at the same time, research and

development costs go up. In computers, the product life is one year, while in the garments industry it is even shorter. In other words, companies need to look to new markets in order to retrieve their developments costs, since the traditional home market is not able to generate the necessary earnings. Consequently, companies have to carry out product development at much higher speed than before. If companies are to remain competitive, they must also focus more on cost minimisation and productivity.

Another aspect is the new information technology. Access to new information technology is becoming increasingly important in international competition. In the field of transport, for example, new information technology has made it possible to monitor and control all movements of goods and equipment from production and purchase via warehousing to transport and sales – thereby reducing warehousing costs. Furthermore, a company can react swiftly to customer requirements and to signals sent by the market. Moreover, information technology enables a company to draw on competencies which it does not have itself and which it needs in order to strengthen its competitiveness.

The new competitive situation has also led to an increasing significance of transnational companies. These are companies that establish themselves one way or another in the formerly national markets as a part of their overall, global strategy. This can be done, e.g. by acquiring national companies, by establishing sales/production units or by entering into franchise or subcontractor agreements, etc. Today, this type of company represents 25-35 per cent of the world's total production and directly employs some 73 million people. If the indirect effect is included, the figure is estimated to be in the region of 150 million people (World Investment Report).

This development is also seen in Denmark. At one level, this is a question of foreign companies establishing themselves in Denmark one way or the other. One indication of this can be obtained by looking at the development in direct foreign investments in Denmark. These went up from $64 million in 1983 to $4,890 million in 1994. In 1993, some 62 per cent of investments went to the tertiary sector, while the primary and secondary sectors accounted for approx. 10 and 26 per cent, respectively. There are approx. 2,300 foreign-owned companies in Denmark at present. They have a total of 160,000 employees, which corresponds to approx. 10 percent of all Danes employed in the private sector (Torp, Jens Erik (1996)).

At another level, this is a question of Danish companies with international activities. These are small and medium-sized exporting companies, as well as big, transnational companies such as A.P Møller, The East-Asiatic Company, Carlsberg, ISS, Novo Nordisk, Danfoss and Danisco.

This means that a growing number of Danish employees work in industries that have considerable international contacts, or they work directly in foreign companies.

New modes of cooperation

Furthermore, the international challenge leads to new modes of cooperation for the company and its employees:

- externally in relation to other companies
- internally in relation to new work procedures.

The increasing significance of the transnational companies in the world economy also means that a growing number of companies become subcontractors to transnational companies. In other words, they lose the direct contact to their traditional customers and markets and their customer relationship is redefined. The company is now subject to production norms and standards laid down by corporate headquarters abroad and the company becomes an integral part of a transnational production network (see text box about Eccolet).

Moreover, the need for faster product development and higher productivity forces more and more companies to cooperate on development work. Companies are more prone to cooperate across industries, sectors and national borders.

On a similar note, international deregulation means that companies often have to cooperate in the face of stiffer competition in order to hold their own on the international marketplace (see text box on the transport sector).

Failing international cooperation in the (road) transport sector

Danish hauliers have a high, stable share of export road transport between Denmark and European countries; however, market shares have been lost on road transport abroad (cabotage).

Danish haulage enterprises are much smaller than their competitors, e.g. the Benelux countries. In addition, Benelux hauliers form a great many alliances to utilize their capacity. Generally speaking, Danish hauliers have been good at utilizing information technology for making the physical transport more efficient. However, they have only to a limited extent been able to develop their traditional transport product in alliances with international partners.

One of the reasons is to be found in the structure of the haulage business, which is characterised by rather small enterprises with little or no tradition for product development and cooperation.

Danish sea transporters have, however, established themselves in international markets with a high knowledge content in their transport product. They account for 5-6 per cent of the world tonnage. High-technological marine transport covers, e.g. container ships, as well as chemical and product tankers. Danish ships are active primarily internationally, serving other countries across the continents.

Source: Industrial summary, 1995

Internally in the individual company, internationalisation calls for new, expanded modes of cooperation and work procedures. New modes of cooperation range from interdisciplinary project teams of different trade groups in the company via cooperation with other companies to coordination and contact with foreign companies – e.g. in the form of communication with colleagues in foreign branches, inter-cultural project work and outposting. A growing number of employees have international contact as part of their work, while at the same time having to enter into new, less routine-natured modes of work.

Another characteristic of the new modes of cooperation is that the individual employee must work more independently and more directly with colleagues in other – foreign – parts of a group of companies, as well as with subcontractors and customers, etc., at home and abroad. The development of information and communication technology in particular has underlined this aspect of the new modes of cooperation. Where the traditional chain of command for a rank-and-file employee who wanted to communicate with a colleague in another country, a subcontractor or a customer used to go via a department head or similar, the much coveted productivity gain from new technology lies in employees talking directly to the party with whom communication is required. This also means that a rising number of employees have direct contact with either colleagues, subcontractors or customers in other countries and cultures.

New products and processes

This international reality also leads to changes in traditional work procedures. This is mainly because of:

- new processes
- new products and services
- new norms.

The new information and communication technologies involve new production processes for companies. The Eccolet example is a case in point. One of the trends is that less profitable parts of production are placed in low-pay areas, while domestic activities concentrate on areas that sustain a higher level of pay, such as development and design. In addition, because of internationalisation, new products and services are introduced on the market all the time.

Eccolet – a Danish example of a global production network

Eccolet, the shoe manufacturer, is a good example of a global production network. Its design and development are carried out in Denmark; raw materials are purchased in Eastern Europe and processed in Indonesia; and the finishing touch is added in Portugal or at the Danish plant.

For competitive reasons, Eccolet has chosen to split up its shoe production geographically. This split-up has been enabled by new information technology. In other words, the entire process becomes highly technological, which, in turn, affects traditional work processes.

Another aspect is the political set-up in relation to the world economy. The international scene is to an increasing extent regulated by inter- and supranational organisations. Companies must comply with a growing number of international standards and norms. Consequently, companies must be even more creative in their development of products and services, since the technical norms are a fact of life to be accepted. This broadens the traditional understanding of competition parameters.

In other words, companies are forced to think alternatively and innovatively if they are to survive in the face of international competition. It is not necessarily enough to supply good

61

and sound products or services at competitive prices. The name of the game is to differentiate one's products and services from those of the competition. This could be done by giving products added value and by "tailoring" them to customer requirements, by offering a unique design or by having untraditional solutions to the question of delivery.

Fast technological development

According to the head of the Danish centre for training placements abroad (CEPU), Søren Kristensen, developments in many industries are so rapid that, for example, there is no time to translate manuals on industrial robots into Danish.

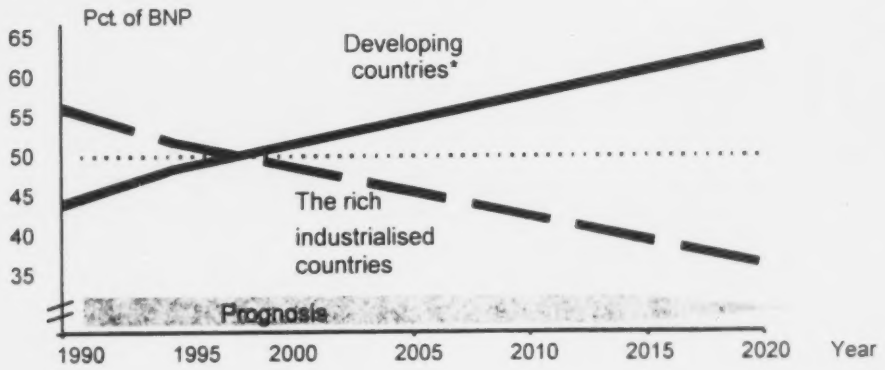
Søren Kristensen's general assessment is that there is a large, uncovered need for internationalising all employee groups – no education, training or trade is untouched by internationalisation. Everybody needs international qualifications, e.g. for working in international groups of companies where one could be moved to different countries, branches or departments, or where one has to cooperate with colleagues of a different nationality than one's own.

New competitors

New countries are entering the international commercial arena at full speed. That in itself sharpens international competition.

The Asian "tiger economies" with high export growth rates have progressed for a long time. However, countries such as India and China, as well as Eastern European countries, have started their speedy integration in the world economy and are today growth economies.

Figure 1.1: Share of world production



Note *: Incl. Eastern Europe and SNG
Source: World Bank

Fig. 1.1 shows the rapid growth of the new competitors.

62

This means that not only is an ever larger share of the world's production being made in these countries, but companies from these countries also become more visible in the world economy. In other words, these are new players who come from an entirely different background than the Western – and thus the Danish – one. They come from countries with a different political structure, other business structures, other management philosophies and a different set of norms and values.

These new competitors give Danish companies and their employees two challenges:

- Firstly, they must now obtain information about and monitor companies with a different pattern of behaviour and action than their traditional competitors.
- Secondly, they get more contact with such companies in the form of competition or cooperation.

New markets

However, the new growth economies not only represent new competitors. They also open up new opportunities in that they themselves become markets for Danish products.

The economic growth in these countries has led to increasing wealth and thus to more purchasing power. China alone is now estimated to have a group of between 100-200 million people who are potential buyers of Western products.

However, these growth markets are full of pitfalls. Their varied history and cultural background have the effect that companies are no longer able to act on the basis of their understanding of the home market and the near-by export markets. They must now obtain and process data on a market/markets different from the Danish market in every respect. In other words, companies face a need for a substantial build-up of knowledge and competence if their long-term strategic objectives are to become a reality.

Another aspect of internationalisation is new markets or market opportunities in near-by markets. One example of this development is the so-called welfare service. The market for welfare service is growing and has become internationalised to an increasing extent. A number of large-scale service groups are busily preparing for the opportunities this development entails. For example the conversion and outsourcing seen in Swedish care for the elderly have meant that the Danish ISS group has increased its activities in the Swedish market – e.g. through acquisitions of companies in cleaning and care for the elderly. The liberalisation of the telecommunications market in Denmark is another example, where foreign companies are now establishing a presence in Denmark as suppliers of telecommunication services.'

63

Figure 1.2: The International Challenge

Source: Hannemann & Møller, Nordic repr. of Oxford Analytica

In summary, internationalisation confronts companies – and thus employees – with a number of challenges, as illustrated in fig. 1.2.

Internationalisation affects a growing number of employees in companies – and it must be noted that these are employees at all levels. International contacts are no longer reserved for management or export department staff. That is why all employees require new competencies.

2. New qualifications

The outline given above characterises the new reality of the world today. New demands are made on companies, but equally on employees and their qualifications. In the light of this development, companies need employees who are able to work in this new reality which in itself calls for new employee qualifications.

Consequently, there is also an impact on the training and education establishments to give course participants and students the necessary competencies to cope with an international environment.

The new qualifications required to cope with the new international environment are analysed below. The analysis is structured around the individual elements of the international challenge.

New competition calls for language skills and market knowledge

The new competitive situation changes the structure of the Danish labour market. Fewer companies – and thus employees – can be said only to deal with the Danish market. Basically, this applies to all industries, cf. the text box below. Because of internationa-

lisation, many Danish companies have launched activities in foreign markets – either in the form of direct exportation or by establishing a presence on the market. As a consequence, a growing number of employees have international contact as part of their everyday work. They thus need more insight into and understanding of the structure of foreign markets, their legislation and mercantile culture (see also below).

Moreover, more and more Danes get employed by foreign companies. This could be because the company has become a subcontractor to a foreign company, or it could be a question of direct employment abroad. In this situation, employees must adapt to companies with a different management philosophy and different rules and regulations than those which traditionally characterise Danish companies.

Another development is that a rising number of Danes, including people who have undergone vocational training, go abroad to work. These are people who take the initiative for working abroad themselves, or people who are outposted by their company for a shorter or longer period of time. In other words, they live in a different country with other norms and values.

Summing up, the new competitive situation means that employees require qualifications in the fields of:

- language skills
- adaptability
- independence
- market knowledge
- cultural understanding
- understanding of the world in which the company operates
- knowledge of trade union traditions in other countries.

New modes of cooperation call for adaptability and flexibility

Internationalisation leads to new modes of cooperation – internally and externally.

The new international reality – two examples

The big construction boom in Germany has meant that many Danish electricians go to Germany to work. Furthermore, it has become more common for certified electricians to join forces and open enterprises in Germany, says Ejner K. Holst, Head of the training section at the Electricians' Union.

In addition, many Danish electricians work in the off-shore industry – in the Danish, British, Norwegian and Dutch sectors.

In Holst's assessment, "soft" qualifications are gaining ground, which is also reflected in the increasing interest shown by union members in these qualifications.

He believes that working in Germany calls for language skills, knowledge of the German building regulations and cultural understanding.

Jørgen Andersen, Deputy Head in the Education Secretariat and secretary at the Danish Metalworkers' Union, also sees a greater need for skills in the fields of languages and production modes in other countries. Furthermore, the nature of the information members ask for at the union – e.g. practical information about living abroad – reflects the fact that a growing number of members go abroad.

In the light of the above, members need good interpersonal skills. In one case, their company may have become a subcontractor to a bigger – foreign – company. In this context, the company's customer becomes the bigger company, which means that the traditional customer profile and contact are re-oriented.

In another case, employees have to be able to work and function in project groups across traditional employee groups and borderlines. There is a shift away from standardised, divided work procedures towards more ad-hoc based assignments (see also below).

Consequently, there is an increasing demand for employees with:

- flexibility
- interpersonal skills
- adaptability
- communication skills.

New technology calls for a desire to learn and for technical skills

One of the most important aspects of the process of internationalisation is the development of new technology that helps refine the actual production process and facilities communication across long geographical distances.

Here, the point is to be able to master the latest technology – in production as well as communication. However, today's technological development rages along so speedily that it is not enough to have technological knowledge. The primary requirement is that employees are able to adapt and to familiarise themselves with new technology on their own – which calls for substantial language skills, since manuals are often no longer translated into Danish (see text box below).

Adaptability among electricians

According to Benny Byrsting of the Electricians' Training Board, there are two elements to the discussion about internationalisation.

Firstly, there is the question of the basic vocational training programme. Here, a growing interest in exchanging apprentices is seen among companies.

Secondly, attempts are made via supplementary training courses to update participants on today's technology, i.e. various dedicated courses are offered. Adaptability can best be promoted via supplementary training, says Benny Byrsting. The need for foreign languages can be seen primarily because manuals are normally in English or German – not Danish.

With the new information and communication technology, international communication and information retrieval have been given a strong boost. Contact with other countries has become an integral part of working life. This is seen, e.g. in information search on the Internet or inquiries about specifications received via fax or modem.

In other words, the technological challenge calls for such skills as:

- adaptability
- desire to learn
- cultural insight
- IT competence
- language skills.

New products and processes call for independence and book skills

With the new technological and competitive situation, former work processes are changed and new products and services enter the market. Companies are in a dynamic environment, which is reflected in the qualifications required from employees.

As stated above, one of the trends is that routine-natured production work is placed in cheap locations around the world – which applies in particular to manufacturing industry. Consequently, the parts of production that stay in the country are often more knowledge and technology intensive. This development towards knowledge-based production can also be witnessed in the service sector. In addition to technical skills and knowledge of the latest technology, employees must possess book skills and competencies. The work of the skilled worker is being intellectualised.

Speedy product development means that companies must offer better and original products and services on an ongoing basis, which puts the focus on cost levels and market requirements. This in itself reduces the need for routine-natured and standardised work procedures. Organisationally, this means that the structure of many companies becomes flatter, less hierarchical. In future, employees must be equipped to take part in project groups across traditional employee boundaries (see text box below).

67

Further to this, speedy product development leads to more changing markets. This increases pressure on company – and thus employees – to react swiftly to market requirements and to identify new market potential.

In addition, internationally defined standard and norms result in new work processes. Procedures must be changed to live up to the requirements of international regulation. Naturally, this means that knowledge of international regulation is called for. An electrician must work according to EU provisions on power authorisation, while a butcher or baker apprentice must comply with inspection rules laid down by the EU in the field of food hygiene.

Finally, the number and nature of new products and processes often in themselves increase the need for language skills – because of international communication, but also because a growing number of manuals are not translated into Danish.

All in all, new processes result in a need for employees with:

- flexibility
- adaptability
- initiative
- confidence and independence
- advanced technical competencies.

New markets call for cultural insight and understanding

As a growing number of companies establish a presence on or sell to foreign markets, requirements concerning their market knowledge increase. Companies need to operate as "insiders" in the market if they want to hold their own in international competition.

To do well on foreign and different markets, companies need more detailed knowledge of the market, not just knowledge of legislation, import regulations and structure of the retail trade. They need to know about demand profiles, consumer trends and the cultural "do's" and "don'ts" .

Companies need employees who are able to collect and build up knowledge about the country in question. This does not mean to say that employees should have a detailed knowledge of a given culture in advance, but rather that they should have the ability to get to know it and really understand it "from within".

The new markets call for employees with:

- cultural insight
- cultural understanding.

Summary and conclusion

Today, companies face a new international reality and need employees who are able to function in this reality. What this means is that vocational training centres should "supply" young people well equipped to manage in the international environment in which companies operate.

European Round Table of Industrialists' (ERT) recommendation

In a report from 1995, ERT criticises education and training programmes for not keeping up with the development companies are undergoing. One point of criticism is that schools often "block" young people in that they specialise them too much – something which is hard to get rid of later on. Their recommendation is that education and training programmes should focus on broad rather than deep knowledge; in this connection they warn against too early specialisation.

Source: ERT 1995

Summing up, it can be said that the international challenge makes a number of demands on employees and the qualifications they need to posses.

- International contact is an integral part of working life. This ranges from communication with other countries via employment with foreign companies to outposting and work stays abroad.
- With more competition and faster product development, cost minimisation and productivity are focused on at every level of the company. Employees thus have to be able to utilize the technological opportunities offered – in terms of production, to keep down costs, and in terms of the products, thereby enabling the company to offer better products.
- The technology content of production rises. Employees thus have to be able to handle new technology, which is being introduced at an ever increasing pace. To utilize new technology, employees must be able to handle and cope with work functions across the company. Technology integrates trades.
- Because of technology, work processes are converted, whereby the knowledge content in production increases. Tomorrow's employee must be able to form part of project-based working groups across traditional boundaries between the trades, since routine-natured functions will gradually disappear. Often a trend towards a flatter, less hierarchical structure is witnessed, in which more competence and responsibility are delegated to employees.

This means that previous competencies and qualifications must be expanded. There is a shift towards broader, more personal competencies, such as flexibility, initiative, independence, language skills, cultural insight and understanding, as well as interpersonal skills (see text box above).

This does not mean to say that qualifications such as technical or professional competence and basic school knowledge will lose significance. That is certainly not the case. Rather, qualification requirements will be broadened to comprise also the broader competencies.

Fig. 1.3

The international meeting

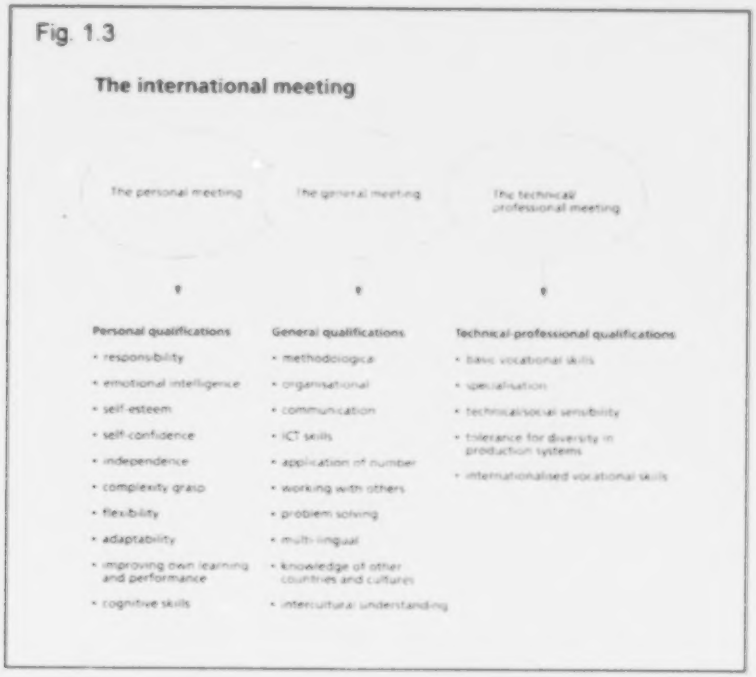


Diagram source: ACIU 1999

Fig. 1.3 illustrates the qualifications required to cope with the new international reality.

The qualification requirements listed in the figure are based on a compilation of the qualifications discussed in the previous sections of this paper. For the sake of simplicity, several of the qualification types listed in the figure contain more than one element.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Qualification development of internationally active skilled workers – from mobility of labour to 'virtual mobility'

Peter Wordelmann, BIBB – Bundesinstitut für Berufsbildung (Federal Institute of Vocational Training), Bonn

This article looks at international qualifications, qualification developments and requirements, especially for internationally active skilled workers.

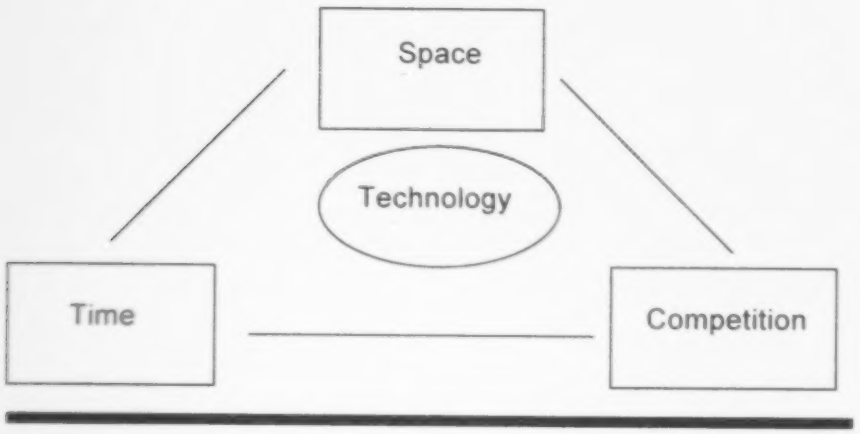
1. Introduction

A predominant feature of the structural transformation of the world economy is that services account for a growing proportion of world GNP. Another is the increasing international division of labour. Since 1980, world exports have increased by one-third more than world GNP. Direct investment has also grown three-fold over the same period. The new information and communication technologies have made economic globalisation move forward faster and more efficiently (iwd, 42/1996). As economic globalisation gathers pace, more and more companies and jobs will involve activities with an international dimension.

The qualifications required to exercise a profession are determined essentially by the content of the work, the forms in which it is organised, and by technological development. However, those factors are becoming increasingly intertwined with the globalisation of production and of services in particular. Getting to grips with the link between forms of work/organisation and the use of technology in the context of global professional activity will have a crucial bearing on future qualifications. International competition and strategic cooperation trigger a dynamic force which people who are internationally active have to constantly strive to master.

The dimensions of globalisation which affect education (on the following see Wordelmann, 1994 and Busse/Paul-Kohlhoff/Wordelmann, 1997) are **space**, **time** and **competition** (see Fig.1). Already today, the global development of **technology**, and in particular the new information and communication technologies, are having a growing impact on all workplaces in international business activities.

Fig. 1: Education-relevant dimensions of the globalisation of economic activity



The starting point for the globalisation of business activities is the expanded **spatial framework of action**, demonstrated best by the creation of internal markets such as that of the European Union with the aim of improving conditions for economic activities such as free movement of goods, persons, services and capital. International areas of economic activity require the corresponding qualification areas which facilitate the mobility of workers or, in more general terms, of qualifications. These action areas are by no means confined to the level of the European Internal Market but cover the whole spectrum from the global context on the one side to small areas of action, on the other ('Europe of the regions').

The second important dimension of international economic activities is the changed and, as a rule, accelerating **time factor conditions** of action. Larger areas and more competitors per se create dynamic economic movement in the markets. The results of this dynamic motion is the elimination of competitors and regional impoverishment. At the same time, time disparities in space occur: someone somewhere is always faster, even if this is only because of the time differences. The swift development of the information and communication technologies reinforces this dynamic movement but also creates new time qualities: as physical distances melt, time disparities dissolve into a global time concurrence. It is not only the accelerated pace of technological progress which makes knowledge become obsolete more quickly but also the global nature of spatial reference and competition.

The dimension of **competition** is closely related to the expansion of the spatial area of economic action. It was no accident that one of the reasons for establishing the EU Internal Market was the cost of a 'non-Europe'. It was believed that the pressure of more open competition would raise competitiveness and reduce costs. Competition consists of the following:

- Competition for good **business locations** and competition between the locations. Direct investments have become the most important factor for global division of labour. Important location factors are, among others, the structure of vocational education and training – reference is often made to the practice-oriented training in the Federal

Republic of Germany in this connection – and also the qualification of workers. But this is only one of the essential conditions.

- Competition for **goods and services markets**, whereby the latter are gaining growing significance because of the new technologies which overcome the boundaries of time and space. At the same time a high level of uncertainty exists.
- Competition on the **labour markets** which can be seen most clearly in the employment of labour from the low-wage nations in high-wage countries. The pressure of migration to the rich industrial nations is increasing worldwide and it is the workforce with a relatively high level of qualification which is the first to migrate.
- Competition for the very **future** such of national economies: this aspect includes competition for international capital and international qualifications. The issues at stake here are both the contents of the qualifications (new 'international' qualifications) and the minimisation of costs for the training and deployment of staff. The evident conclusion is that international qualifications embody investment in the future. The goals which emerge in the attempt to secure the future of national economies are, in the final resort, global strategic alliances. Just as space has a dimension so does competition. In the context of the dimensions of international business operations there are different forms of international economic action (see Fig. 2).

This diagram makes it clear that the forms of international economic action take place in an **interwoven structure** of spatial interrelations and modes of competition or cooperation. This is why the ability to cooperate at an international level is to be found more at the management level of multinational companies because they have to secure strategic market positions; in small and medium-sized enterprises the ability to compete for even short-term market opportunities tends to be found in the levels below management. Personalised international qualifications are 'traded' on an international labour market. The crucial objectives here are not only to get suitable staff for international tasks but also to develop and utilise staff development systems at the international level.

The **global development of technology**, in particular the new information and communication technologies, will have a growing impact on international professional activities. It makes it possible to overcome the boundaries of time and space and will therefore probably lead to the emergence of completely new qualification requirements for 'international' workplaces.

Fig. 2: Dimensions and forms of international economic action

Com-\Space peti- \ Ref./ tion / \ Mag- Cooper-\ ni- ation \ tude	**inter** (at home→ abroad)	**intra** (abroad → at home)	**Exchange** (at home ↔ abroad)	**Magni-tude** without borders
for locations	find, establish and expand locations abroad	secure, establish and expand domestic locations against foreign competition	cooperation between locations at home and abroad. Joint ventures	
for goods and services markets	buy and sell products and services abroad	sell foreign products & services at home; sell domestic products & services against foreign ones	cooperation in the development and production of international products and services	
on the labour market	buy, offer, sell labour abroad (international mobility)	employ foreign labour at home	cooperation between colleagues (intellectual mobility, cultural synergy)	
for the future (international capital; international qualifications)	***TIME***	***(dynamism)***		market capture, linkage, strategic alliances

2. International qualifications

The 'international qualifications' required to deal with the interwoven structures mentioned above, are by nature 'future-orientated qualifications'. Even today, they are not confined to the management level but are also increasingly essential for skilled workers and employees. In general terms, as seen in somewhat older surveys, about 12% of the staff employed – an indicator of globalisation – need foreign languages at their place of work. But we also know that knowledge of foreign languages alone does not suffice.

International qualifications may be systematically divided into three 'original' dimensions:

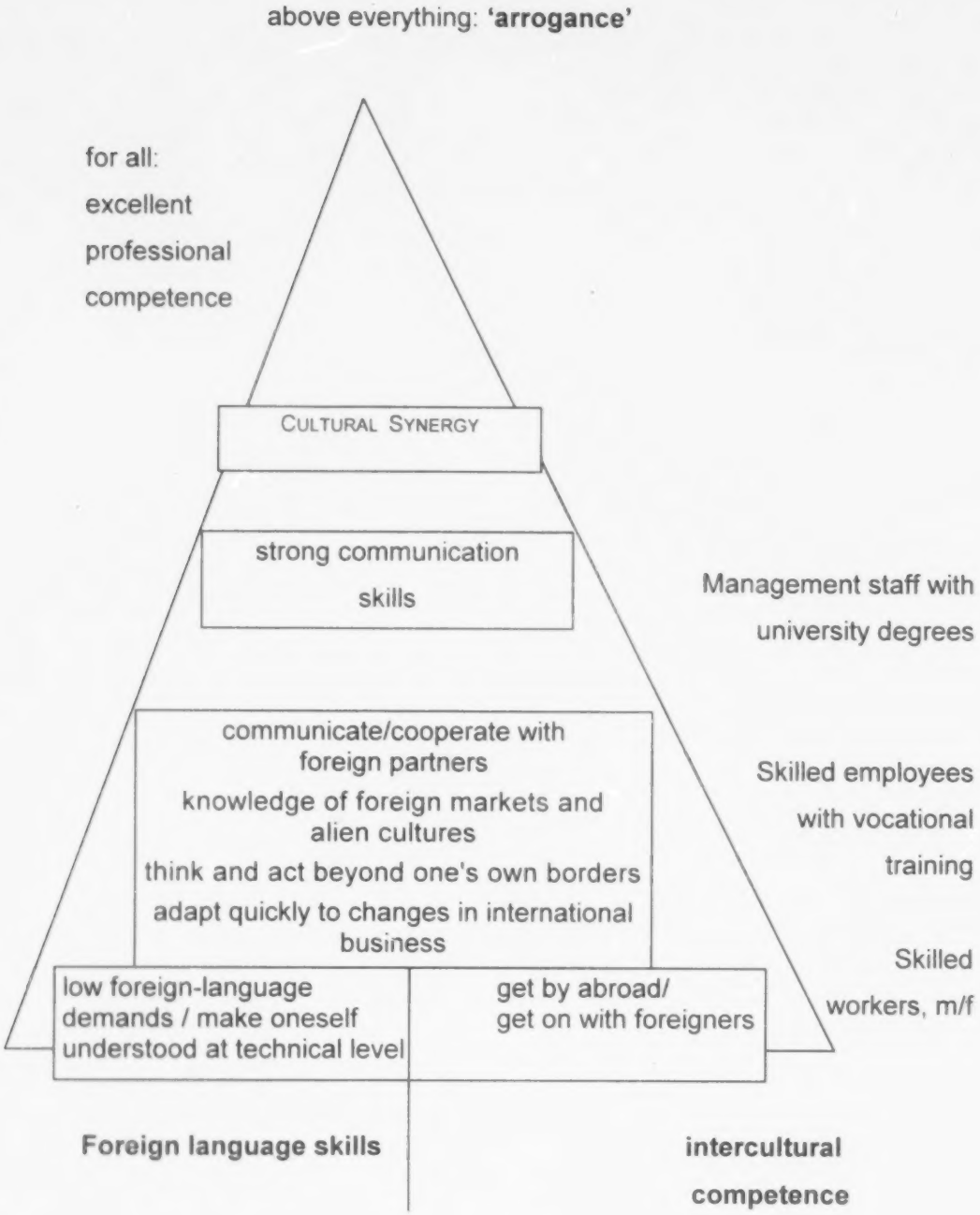
- **excellent professional competence** as a pre-requisite for international professional activity
- **foreign language skills**
- **intercultural competence.**

In addition, in the context of international qualifications, there are three other important aspects (on this see Busse/Paul-Kohlhoff/Wordelmann, 1997):

- 'arrogance' as a 'concealed' dimension of German international action,
- 'mental and physical stamina' as a condition for working abroad,
- 'international qualifications' as a corporate and social obligation.

International qualifications as a **corporate and social obligation** are formulated against the background, not only of the necessary communication with foreign business partners, but also communication with foreign friends and colleagues. This requirement is the outcome, not primarily of the globalisation of the economy, but of the globalisation of life. One important aspect would, for example, be culturally-determined conflicts within the company which could, possibly, become more acute through rising unemployment. 'I will learn a second language and come back as a foreigner'. This sentence perhaps characterises the issues at stake. In this case the direct relationship to work or occupation recedes into the background. The primary goal of such a dimension of international qualifications is related to aspects of an intercultural basic qualification to which elements of an intercultural conflict-solving potential have been added. This can certainly be formulated as the counter-dimension to 'arrogance'. The following figure shows the contents of international qualifications and their interrelationship.

Fig. 3: International qualifications - contents and requirements


above everything: 'arrogance'
for all:
excellent
professional
competence
CULTURAL SYNERGY
strong communication skills
Management staff with university degrees
communicate/cooperate with foreign partners
knowledge of foreign markets and alien cultures
think and act beyond one's own borders
adapt quickly to changes in international business
Skilled employees with vocational training
low foreign-language demands / make oneself understood at technical level
get by abroad/ get on with foreigners
Skilled workers, m/f
Foreign language skills
intercultural competence

What is important here is that all dimensions should be part of a comprehensive concept of qualification for international activities and should not by any means be reduced to foreign-language skills.

Not as much emphasis is placed on **excellent professional competence** from the employee's point of view as from the company's. The reason for this is undoubtedly that in principle employees assume that there is already a high level of professional competence, whereas for companies professional competence is the very starting point for international activities or operations and so is often at the heart of personnel policy considerations.

A **knowledge of foreign languages** is indispensable for occupational activity in an international context. However, various levels of foreign-language knowledge are necessary. Here it need only be pointed out that international activities – including those carried out abroad – can be undertaken with little or no knowledge of foreign languages. Above all, when a 'technical' task is involved, lack of language skills can be replaced by professional competence or personality factors. With regard to management staff, the requirements sometimes imply a high level of negotiating skill using a foreign language.

In general terms, according to the findings of surveys conducted in 1992, about 12% of employed persons need *foreign language proficiency* at their place of work. But the need varies greatly according to sectors. On an average, only 2% of skilled workers and 14% of skilled employees entrusted with difficult tasks (all with successfully completed training) need foreign languages for their work. In the case of the skilled workers, the great demand in the hotel and restaurant sector should be stressed.

The need for foreign language skills in the workplace should be viewed in a differentiated manner, as the findings of a survey of internationally active skilled employees in the Federal Republic of Germany have shown (see Busse/Paul-Kohlhoff/Wordelmann, 1997). Some aspects of this survey will be presented below.

The foreign language predominantly needed is English. Of the employees interviewed, fully a quarter wished to learn a second foreign language. The most important form of use is active speech. For more than three-quarters of all interviewed skilled workers and employees, proficiency in speech had the utmost priority in the acquisition of new or the improvement of existing foreign languages. Grammar, with 34%, took second place closely followed by understanding of the spoken language and technical language.

Apart from the schools for general education (84%), the employees mostly learned the languages abroad on their own (46%) or in the enterprise, i.e. in the course of work (39%). An interesting finding is that 44% of the persons questioned stated that they had learned the foreign languages during their leisure hours and thus showed a high degree of motivation in acquiring language skills. On the other hand, only 21% of the interviewed persons availed of in-company continuing training as a means of acquiring knowledge of foreign languages.

The companies have done little to encourage the acquisition of foreign language skills by the skilled workers and employees questioned. More than half (55%) the interviewed persons said that the employer had done nothing at all. Still, enterprises enabled 34% to attend a language course in the country and 7% had been sent abroad for this purpose.

77

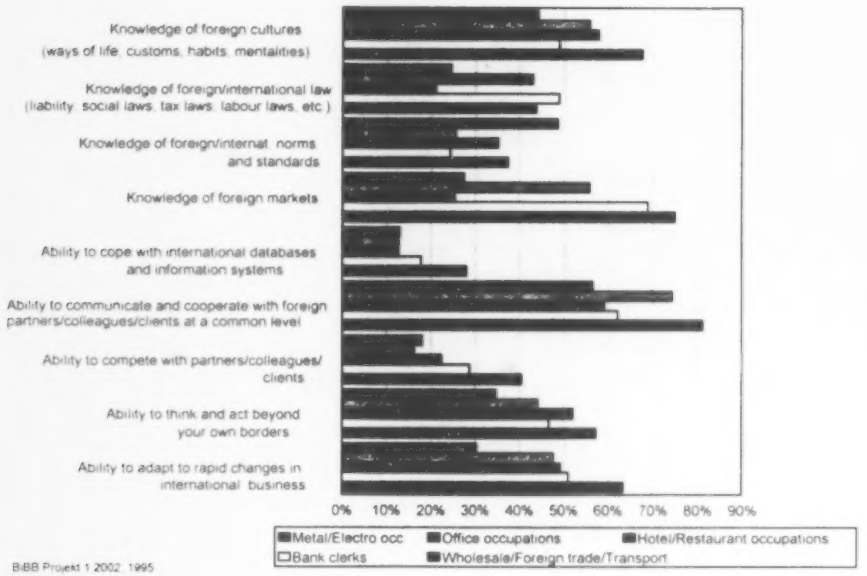
It is possible that this will change in the medium term. Because, if the forecasts of employees working in the international context are to be believed, the need for foreign languages skills in the workplace will rise. Sixty-four percent of those interviewed believed that the need for knowledge of English would increase, even strongly. The figures for knowledge of French and Spanish were 30% and 21% respectively. Even for Russian, 18% believed in a strong (very strong) rise in requirement.

To the question, where, after completing general education at school, a foreign language should be acquired for occupational activities, 38% responded that this should be done in another country, 32% felt that vocational training was the most suitable method and only 20% were in favour of in-company continuing training.

Given the high foreign language competence level of the sample, it is interesting to note that only one-quarter of the interviewees felt that their own level of knowledge was good enough: 45% said they needed more continuing training (in the industrial/technical area this figure was as high as 61%), and another 28% said they would like to learn a second foreign language. This finding tallies with other surveys. Seventy-nine percent of the employees questioned were even prepared to acquire this knowledge in their own free time, and 44% had already done so.

Intercultural competence is the third aspect of international qualifications. This ranges from 'getting by abroad' and 'cultural curiosity' to a high level of negotiating skill in a foreign situation using a foreign language. The most important thing is the capacity 'to communicate and cooperate with foreign partners/colleagues/customers at a common level' as well as 'knowledge of foreign cultures (ways of life, customs, habits, mentalities) ' and of 'foreign markets'. Also important is the ability 'to adapt to rapid changes in international business' and 'to think and act beyond your own borders'. In contrast, the ability 'to cope with international databases and information systems' is still relatively unimportant. At the present time in the commercial/administrative and service professions, a knowledge of foreign languages and intercultural competence generally tends to be essential and taken for granted (see Figure 4). In the industrial/technical field, professional competence takes precedence. In the longer term, this distinction may not be tenable because advisory functions are becoming increasingly integrated into the technical professions. And it will certainly not be tenable in small and medium-sized enterprises. Even now, customer orientation for skilled workers in middle-ranking positions is frequently geared towards the international sub-contracting industry and requires corresponding qualifications.

Fig. 4: Need for knowledge/qualifications of an international nature by occupation/occupational group


Knowledge of foreign cultures (ways of life, customs, habits, mentalities)
Knowledge of foreign/international law (liability, social laws, tax laws, labour laws, etc.)
Knowledge of foreign/internat. norms and standards
Knowledge of foreign markets
Ability to cope with international databases and information systems
Ability to communicate and cooperate with foreign partners/colleagues/clients at a common level
Ability to compete with partners/colleagues/ clients
Ability to think and act beyond your own borders
Ability to adapt to rapid changes in international business
0% 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90%
Metal/Electro occ.
Office occupations
Hotel/Restaurant occupations
Bank clerks
Wholesale/Foreign trade/Transport
BIBB Projekt 1.2002, 1995

3. The current situation in the dual vocational training system

The question which arises against this background is, to what extent is the dual vocational training system of the Federal Republic of Germany geared to respond to international requirements and how will it do this in future.

In the **companies** there are scarcely any systematic ideas about providing 'international qualifications' in the field of vocational training. That is true of both industrial/technical occupations and the commercial occupations. For the companies the provision of 'international qualifications' belongs to the area of continuing vocational training; foreign-language teaching as a part of vocational training is a task to be accomplished by the vocational school. This is consistent with the results of a study conducted by the Institut der deutschen Wirtschaft (Institute for the German Economy). According to the study, almost half the companies questioned which said they had a foreign-language requirement considered the language skills of their new recruits with a completed vocational training to be adequate or poor. Only one-eighth of the companies surveyed felt that the part-time vocational school took proper or at least adequate account of foreign languages (see Zedler, R.; Koch, R., 1992).

'International qualifications' are provided on a demand-led basis, and generally only when a foreign project is planned or when such qualifications are urgently required for a domestic post. Otherwise it is assumed that employees have the qualifications if necessary, that employees participate in in-house training or seek corresponding continuing training outside. In that case employees are usually required to contribute their own time. Finally, it is pointed out that there are usually sufficient workers – including those of a different nationality – with a knowledge of foreign languages available on the labour-market.

79

Although companies make the provision of 'international qualifications' dependent on actual requirement, there are discernible differences between internationally active large enterprises and small and medium-sized enterprises. The actions of the latter tend to be dictated by specific situations, whereas large enterprises increasingly try to carry out systematic staff planning, including for their international needs, even though this is mostly confined to their managerial staff.

Large companies also tend to overestimate the skills and knowledge of their employees in this field but, overall, and on the basis of experience over many years, they are coping with the qualification issues stemming from globalisation. Small and medium-sized enterprises have a tendency to underestimate the extent to which the lack of qualifications in this field makes it difficult to compete, and some of them are therefore facing serious problems, in particular when they first stand on the threshold of globalisation.

Furthermore, one may say that the conditions currently prevailing in the **system of vocational training** in the Federal Republic of Germany are not very conducive to the development of the international dimension. A mere glance at the situation of foreign language teaching in vocational training suffices to show that – despite numerous appeals and demands – it is hardly apt to speak of satisfactory development. The number of pupils who learn foreign languages in **vocational schools** continues to be low. Mostly, these are optional subjects. A higher percentage is to be found in the city-States of Berlin and Hamburg, an indication that in urban conglomerations more foreign language teaching is carried out, especially for commercial occupations.

The general curricula for the vocational schools, with few exceptions, do not as a rule include foreign languages. In this context, foreign language teaching in the vocational school normally means English-language instruction which is compulsory – if at all – mainly for the occupational areas of 'Economics' and 'Administration' and 'Nutrition and Home Economics'. This instruction can be a part of the technical-subject-specific or general part of the curriculum or it can be offered as a purely optional subject or one of the optional subjects for compulsory selection. Generally, it is demanded that more language teaching should be offered in the vocational schools. But the counter arguments here are the costs involved and the tight budgets of the Länder governments.

Irrespective of this, there are certainly some trainee occupations for which foreign language should be compulsory in the vocational schools (cf. Busse/Paul-Kohlhoff/Wordelmann, 1997). It may be assumed that, given the relatively great need for the foreign language proficiency of skilled workers in some specific sectors – and these, in principle, also include the trainee occupations – foreign languages are an inherent part of professional competence. This would certainly apply to the following occupations at the very least (referring to older data from 1991/92):

- Forwarding clerk (m/f),
- Travel agent (m/f),
- Restaurant specialist (m/f), Hotel specialist (m/f),
- Cook (m/f),
- Wholesale and foreign trade clerk,
- Clerk in industry and bank clerk.

80

In these cases the in-company training – as is sometimes already the case – should also include a foreign language component. The fact that this is possible and does not necessary mean an obstacle to training, may be seen in many examples from many enterprises. In the industrial/technical field too, there is a need to improve foreign language instruction in connection with specific activities (e.g. assembly).

Even greater problems than those in the context of vocational schools are to be found with regard to the **training ordinances** which regulate in-company training. In the older ordinances foreign languages are practically non-existent, apart from the traditional teaching of French technical terms for cooks.

In the industrial/technical occupations the subject of foreign languages started to play an ever-growing role in opinion-building processes because of the lack of appropriate regulations, as could be seen, for instance, in the discussion on technical draughtsmen. A positive first step was taken with the trial ordinance for the trainee occupation of 'railwayman in operational service'. The outline plan contained the requirement 'give information in a foreign language'. But in the final ordinance this part was removed. Altogether, it has been seen that the international dimension has not been included or only considered to a minimal extent in the procedures for the revision of the ordinances.

Where this tendency is most likely to be found is in the 'spearhead' (in terms of internationality) of the trainee occupations, the forwarding clerks. But the formulated requirements, 'use foreign technical terms, fill in foreign forms and prepare documents', 'work with foreign standard texts' and 'give simple information' still do not venture very far in this field. The same applies to the 'designer of digital and print media' where technical English is an examination subject and the skills 'use English media' and 'use German and English information sources' are required. Otherwise, reference to the foreign language issue is reduced to reading and understanding English regulations or manuals and technical terminology, as in the case of the 'microtechnologist' or the 'event technology specialist'.

Intercultural competence in the broader sense described below, plays virtually no role at all. As a whole, the lack of emphasis on the international dimension in the training ordinances is without doubt due, in part, to the lack of occupation-related relevance at present. However, it is likely that a role is also played by arguments which say that additional (international) requirements will have a curbing effect on training, and are thus not feasible at the present time.

4. Vocational training policy demands

The dual system and the high qualification level of skilled manpower in the Federal Republic of Germany are viewed as vocational advantages. But the great discrepancy between the high level of training and the negative trends on the labour market leads to the question whether the structures, methods and contents of the vocational training system are still geared to dynamic international development and whether they, if not developed further, will not themselves turn into an obstacle in global competition. To put it bluntly: the evolution of Europe was not really taken seriously, so how can this possibly succeed in the case of globalisation?

Despite many years of experience in international economic activities, the vocational training system has remained immune to the requirements of globalisation and the world wide linkage of business. The demand voiced most often is that more should be done in the vocational schools. The demands may be summarised in the following terms:

The question of foreign language and international qualification is – as described above – only included to a minor degree in the trainee occupations which are already regulated or are in the process of regulation. Independent of this, regional, company-specific or sector-specific solutions are emerging within and on the periphery of the dual system. This means the danger of a widening gap between international requirements at the workplace and the structure of vocational education and training, if it is assumed that globalisation will increase and will have a growing impact on skilled staff with vocational training – especially in small and medium-sized enterprises.

That is why – even though budget and training place problems seem be the typical characteristics of our age, some future-oriented demands should be formulated.

In those trainee occupations where it may be assumed the future activities in a workplace will increasingly have international implications, foreign language teaching should become a mandatory component of the training ordinances.

In vocational schools provision should be made for a basic intercultural qualification for all which includes the following:

- learning that many things can be different in other countries,
- not getting flustered if addressed in English,
- learning about intercultural conflict-solving potential within and outside the enterprise. This would also respond to the demand of the companies to define international qualifications as a social obligation.

In **continuing training** more emphasis should be laid on the planning and preparation of foreign language training, and the acquisition of intercultural competence by skilled technical staff (and not only managerial personnel). International qualifications should be packaged in modules and, if necessary, integrated in the occupations requiring advanced training. For women these measures should be carried out during working hours and a way should be found to compensate the lack of experience of a stay abroad through alternative solutions at home. A holistic qualification strategy should be sought for staff working at the international level, instead of a more or less random accumulation of single measures or learning by 'taking the plunge'.

5. Future trends: qualification for 'virtual' mobility

At present – apart from temporary contract workers or seasonal workers – an international labour market exists mainly for staff at the higher management level. The mobility of skilled workers and employees has been moderate and has certainly not experienced the development expected by many after the creation of the European internal market. In 1991/92 the percentage of the employees interviewed in the representative BIBB/IAB survey (only the western German Länder) who had spent some time abroad amounted to 2.8% for skilled workers, 2.1% for skilled employees and 14.4% for university graduates.

As far as **future trends** are concerned, the rapid evolution of the information and communication technologies, which is erasing more and more boundaries, will have a decisive impact. To an increasing extent, physical mobility can now be replaced by virtual mobility; but what will be more important is the facilitation of international contacts from the workplace at home. The requirements arising from this development should be incorporated in international qualification at an early stage.

This gives rise to the hypothesis that network communication can lead to the emergence of 'culture-free' zones in which the participants can deal with one another on an equal footing. One of the most important research questions which is still open is whether this is generally valid or in which company contexts such forms of communication will be necessary in future. We are studying this question in an ongoing project in the Federal Institute for Vocational Training. Independent of the final findings, it is already predictable that the prevailing concept of international qualification will have to be extended to include another dimension, that of **'network competence'**.

This competence is not confined to the technical ability to cope with Internet and Intranet, i.e. to work **with** networks. It is characterised by a fundamental lack of boundaries and thus also requires the ability to work efficiently **in** networks, above all, 'to think and act in terms of networks'. This also includes indirect communication with people from another culture. Network language, and also confidence-building in the network, are new requirements.

In terms of current necessities for the world of work, the priority need of the day is the development of concrete solutions to problems for small and medium-sized enterprises. As a hypothesis, they stand a better chance of survival in international competition if they make greater use of the potential of cross-border communication by utilising new information and communication technologies. For one thing, these technologies create conditions which make it possible, for the first time, to compete in international markets without being physically present. The result will be greater intellectual and virtual mobility with a premium put on the speed of action. This means that skilled workers and employees in small and medium-sized enterprises will now have to face new demands for which they have not received an adequate preparation.

References

Busse, Gerd; Paul-Kohlhoff, Angela; Wordelmann, Peter: *Fremdsprachen und mehr. Internationale Qualifikationen aus der Sicht von Betrieben und Beschäftigten. Eine empirische Studie über Zukunftsqualifikationen*, Ed. Federal Institute for Vocational Training, Berlin, Bonn 1997

Wordelmann, Peter: *Fremdsprachen in Ausbildung und Beruf*. In: Gewerkschaftliche Bildungspolitik, No 2, 1991, pp. 33-40.

Wordelmann, Peter: *Die Notwendigkeit von Fremdsprachenunterricht an der Berufsschule*. In: Berufsbildung in Wissenschaft und Praxis, No 5, 1993, pp. 9-14.

Wordelmann, Peter (Hrsg.): *Internationale Qualifikationen. Inhalte, Bedarf und Vermittlung*. Ed. Federal Institute for Vocational Training (Berichte zur beruflichen Bildung, No 184). Berlin, Bonn1995.

Wordelmann, Peter: *Internationalisierung des Wirtschaftens – Folgen für die Qualifikationsentwicklung in der Berufsbildung* in: Wordelmann, Peter (Ed.): *Internationale Qualifikationen. Inhalte, Bedarf und Vermittlung*. Herausgegeben vom Bundesinstitut für Berufsbildung. (Berichte zur beruflichen Bildung, No 184). Berlin, Bonn 1995, p. 11ff

Wordelmann, Peter: *Fremdsprachenbedarf und Mobilität von Fachkräften*, in: Wirtschaft und Berufs-Erziehung, No 10/1996, p. 302ff

Wordelmann, Peter: *Fremdsprachenlernen und internationale Qualifikationen*, in: Ross, E. (Hrsg.): *Berufsbezogenes Fremdsprachenlernen. Neue Konzeptionen, Inhalte, Methoden und Medien*, Ed. Federal Institute for Vocational Training. (Berichte zur beruflichen Bildung No 205), Berlin, Bonn 1997, p. 29ff

Zedler, Reinhard; Koch, Rita: Berufsschule – Partner der Ausbildungsbetriebe. Ergebnisse einer Unternehmensumfrage, Köln 1992

Trainer exchanges: a staff development opportunity

Marilyn Young, Thomas Danby College, Leeds

Ms Marilyn Young deals with concrete examples and concrete benefits in using trainer exchanges as staff development opportunities. Thomas Danby College in Leeds, UK, has used trainer exchanges as one of several initiatives in their staff development programme.

The European White Paper on Education and Training (European Commission, 1995) stressed the importance of the role of education and training in the new Europe, in helping to reduce unemployment and social exclusion, develop intercultural understanding and preserve and share diversity, traditions and cultures of all Member States. The best way for this to happen is seen to be through co-operative action. As the new century begins, this need to develop better levels of understanding, both internally and across borders is vital for both the improvement in the quality of life for all citizens as well as in helping Europe compete in the global marketplace. How can vocational educational and training institutions contribute to this?

Thomas Danby College (TDC) in Leeds is a vocational college situated in the heart of the inner city, home to a wide and diverse cultural and global population. The last census showed over forty languages were spoken in the local area. The College has over 12,000 student enrolments, and of these approximately 1200 are full-time students. A teaching staff of over four hundred supports them, mostly working part-time. The programmes provide a range of education and training pathways from foundation to university level in some vocational areas. Vocationally the College offers specialist training in all areas of Food and food preparation, including Hotel and Catering, Baking, Chocolate and Sugar, Meat and Food Technology. There are also programmes in Hairdressing and Beauty Therapy, Health, Social and Childcare, Art and Design, Media and Performing Art, Information Technology, Sport and Outdoor Education, Leisure and Tourism, Business and Management and there is a large and active community based adult education programme. The college has a major focus on encouraging and supporting those who have left the initial education system with few or no qualifications, to return to learn.

In 1993 the Hospitality students had the only contact with continental Europe, linking with the twin-city of Lille, France. Five years ago, there was a strategic decision taken to actively pursue contact between institutions, linking students and staff in other European countries. This has resulted in links with twenty-two institutions in ten countries. Over 70 staff visits have taken place and many of these have been funded through the Leonardo Da Vinci programme. In the 1998-99 academic year sixty-four members of staff from across Europe made a visit to TDC.

Those of you who are working to convince managers as to the benefit of developing transnational activity, may be interested in the findings of a research project on trainer mobility undertaken by the author in 1999, as part of a MA in European Education at the

University of Hull, UK. The purpose of the study emerged from a personal and professional interest in assessing the impact the increasing number of staff opportunities was having within the college. It aimed to investigate whether teachers who had been involved in transnational in-service training, working with colleagues from similar vocational backgrounds, felt the experience had contributed to a wider European / intercultural perspective being developed in their classroom practice. It also aimed to identify these changes, offering clear signposts for and good practice in the implementation of any European / intercultural activity.

Fifty-nine questionnaires were returned to be analysed, completed by teachers and trainers from Spain, Sweden, Finland and the UK. Not all respondents had participated in the Leonardo Da Vinci programme, and length of visits varied from two or three days to two weeks. Also contributing to the findings was information provided by visitors to TDC, during meetings and informal discussion. Encouragingly, feedback was very positive and benefits were clearly identified on a personal, professional and institutional level. The positive outcomes far outweighed any problems and difficulties encountered. The main findings are outlined below.

Defining a European dimension

The questionnaire began with a specific question to determine the respondents understanding of the term ' an intercultural / European dimension in the curriculum'. Providing a context as to how respondents from different Member States perceived the meaning of this would help interpret the responses to the questionnaire. The result was fifty-four different comments, although closer analysis provided some linkage between the answers. The varied response did indicate that although the European Commission and national governments advocate the inclusion of a European dimension in the teaching and learning process there is a lack of clarity, for these practitioners at least, as to what this actually means.

Enrichment of the curriculum

Contact with practitioners in other countries promoted the exchange of ideas and good practice and provided an impetus to review and update the content of training programmes. Visits were seen to provide new ideas, methods and resources for staff to take back into their home teaching environment.

Teaching and Learning

Responses indicated transnational staff training contributed to in-service training programmes through the sharing of pedagogical information and practice across a whole range of vocational education, training and management sectors. It provided participants with knowledge concerning European education and training philosophy and methodology and respondents drew attention to the fact that the experience helped to enrich their teaching and widen the experience of students. The majority commented that this happened mainly from being able to draw on personal experience from the visit. For example, in being able to explain and demonstrate how other methods seen could be used and by making comparisons with other countries.

Working alongside colleagues from other countries had given new ideas, new methods, and in one case 'inspiration' as well as additional resources. Resource, display materials and photographs were collected and sometimes developed as a result of the tutor contact, all of which were seen to enhance classroom practice.

One respondent said the visit would result in a change of teaching style based on lesson observation undertaken. Participants saw the contact as being a two-way process and, although some identified limited language skills as a potential barrier, there had been an enthusiasm and willingness on both sides to overcome this. For many respondents, especially from the UK, this willingness and commitment to find alternative intercultural communication strategies had made the visits productive.

Curriculum delivery

Specific benefits to the curriculum planning process emerged and included changes in the curriculum planning process, the development of distance learning materials and the development of new curriculum models. Others used the opportunity to improve levels of assessment and one respondent talked about the importance of being able to benchmark levels of learning across countries. In the UK, comments indicated an emerging trend to re-design lesson plans, assignments and projects to include a European focus. In terms of UK student work placement, the achievement of Key Skills was an area identified for future discussion and planning with partner colleges.

Respondents commented on the positive effect transnational visits had on the curriculum delivery. In the majority of responses this centred on being able to draw on personal experience.

Culture in the curriculum

A number of respondents commented on the importance of students learning about other cultures and for the need to have some reference to this within curriculum content. Opportunity to spend time in another country was appreciated, and several saw value in this in helping to widen cultural understanding within the classroom. Visitors to the UK saw a major benefit in being able to use and improve their own language skills and, for those travelling out of the UK, the benefit of travel, seeing different lifestyles and widening experience were all seen as important. One Swedish person responded that, as a result of the visit, '*curriculum planning would be altered to give greater emphasis to the position of the cultural minority.*' Another comment indicated that the visit had illustrated the importance of the role of culture in educational methodology, and several others felt more confident in being able to draw on experience to talk about other cultures. One respondent thought transnational work helped *'break down ignorance and prejudice.*'

Influencing the wider curriculum

It was difficult to assess the impact individual visits were making on teaching and learning across the institutions. The question 'have you been able to share your experience with your colleagues' brought several responses and indicated dissemination took place in a number of ways. It had been conducted on an informal basis, over coffee with colleagues or as part of informal discussion in the institution, through to formal feedback. These had included internal reports for management and colleagues, individual reports of vocational

specific information given at team meetings, presentations to colleagues on the outcomes of the visit and significantly, direct influence on strategic developments at the institutions.

One Finnish colleague spoke of the contribution made to a city-wide *'internationalisation group'* as a result of visiting other institutions. In Spain, as more staff undertake visits, they were contributing towards the development of an intercultural policy for the institution.

Benefit to students

The most frequent curriculum reference related to the benefits for students. The majority of respondents identified some way in which they felt staff participation in transnational projects had enhanced their classroom practice and ultimately benefited students. The importance of visitors to classes was seen to motivate students, enrich the lesson and *'awaken curiosity.'* Visitors also encouraged language learning and, in the non-UK classroom, acted as a rich resource for students to help them practise their English. This was seen to be a direct motivating factor for student language learning. Some respondents commented that they had been able to contribute to the teaching of lessons, whilst visiting the host institutions, others mentioned the positive effect of this happening within their classroom.

Contact with other countries provided a chance to meet different people and see a different way of life. A Finnish tutor thought it *'helped to bring positive attitudes about valuing multi-cultural societies.'* The experience of contact with others was seen to enrich student life by a number of respondents. One Swedish tutor working in a multi-cultural setting commented that *'the ethnic background of students was a real asset in the classroom.'* There were comments on the positive feedback from students who had enjoyed talking with other groups and learning about other cultures.

In identifying the benefit to students one Spanish respondent said that *' it is important to accept cultural differences and the richness of being involved.'*

The technological impact on the curriculum

Several of the responses drew attention to the increasing need for computer skills, both in the classroom and on a personal level, and acknowledged the growing importance of technological skills in their vocational sector. Responses indicated the purpose of some visits being linked to projects with an information technology component. From work within TDC there is staff recognition that transnational contact is increasingly maintained through the use of e-mail. Set alongside this were comments, both written and verbal, identifying lack of computer skills, lack of personal confidence to use the technology and for several, lack of access to hardware. This had been highlighted in face to face meetings over the last eighteen months for a number of respondents.

Motivation

Respondents reported having greater motivation and enthusiasm on their return. There was an appreciation of the time/space away from the workplace to reflect on current practice and issues. Motivation was also seen to increase through the improved confidence levels of the staff participating. This was identified in a number of ways and included improved communication skills, heightened self-esteem, and their ability to manage projects and actively contribute to working groups.

Team-working

Working with colleagues in another setting and in another culture helped to develop team-working skills and promoted greater institution-wide co-operation. Teachers undertaking transnational training opportunities take on the role of co-operative learner and must develop social and intellectual skills to be both an effective communicator and contributor to both their own and their colleagues' learning process. Visits to other institutions provided a number of opportunities for co-operation with other teachers, using skills transferable to their own teaching situations.

Transnational project management and shared ownership

Involving teachers and trainers from across the institution encouraged shared ownership of transnational work. This meant that activity was not reliant on the goodwill and dedication of an enthusiastic individual and was therefore more likely to be embedded at an institutional level.

A trainer exchange was regarded as essential preparation for staff involved in organising student exchanges. Staff were better able to prepare and brief students if they had a greater understanding of the education and training system in the country to be visited. An appreciation of the cultural differences and different working environments was seen as essential for the effective management of transnational partnerships. Those participating identified an increased awareness to this and an enthusiasm for developing and maintaining contact with colleagues on their return.

Staff development

Trainer exchanges were regarded as an important staff development opportunity. In the UK, this was often recognised at an institutional level through "Investor in People" plans, a government funded initiative promoting staff development. A major benefit to the institutions was seen to be the increased professional knowledge gained from participation and increased confidence to use this within the teaching process. Examples given included feeling more knowledgeable about the European Union, gaining a greater understanding of other vocational systems, sharing practice and resources in order to enhance classroom practice and, for some respondents, participation had resulted in improved communication and managerial skills.

At TDC, trainer exchanges support a wider corporate strategy and links closely to the identified staff training objectives for the institution. Over the last four years this has enabled a number of staff to investigate aspects of classroom practice and to feed this back into the wider college staff teams. A project in 1999 linked closely to the strategic objective at TDC, to develop and improve the Information and Communication Technology skills of staff.

Challenges

Whilst respondents enthusiastically supported transnational contact, challenges did emerge. One of these, especially for UK trainers, was their lack of language skills and the difficulty this placed on developing successful partnerships. On a positive note, it brought home to those trainers involved the importance of encouraging students to undertake

language learning. Within TDC the challenge is to create a climate in which the students recognise the importance of language learning before they leave us to visit a partner, not on their return.

In the UK, the government led drive for higher educational and vocational standards places great importance on using paper based qualifications to chart a young person's future. For those not likely to achieve, this focus may act as a further deterrent and increase the social exclusion gap between the 'have' and 'have not'. Disaffection was not limited to borders and respondents saw co-operation across Europe as a means of helping to tackle the issue.

Great emphasis has been placed on the teaching profession being able to respond competently to the rapidly changing needs of modern society and the respondents acknowledged the importance of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in the classroom. What emerged from the majority of responses was that time was needed, both to implement ICT into the classroom and for teachers to undertake and achieve their own technological competence, before being expected to support learners in achieving theirs. Potentially, the use of information technology is an ideal tool for developing a cost-effective, interactive learning resource for intercultural experience in the classroom. The reality of its application has a long way to go to meet the vision.

If intercultural teaching and learning is not addressed within the training colleges by providing opportunities to raise awareness or challenge views, teachers coming into the profession are unlikely to be prepared adequately to meet either the needs of the young people or life in European society.

One major step would be to identify the additional support measures needed to encourage more members from the minority ethnic communities into the teaching profession, providing much needed role models. In vocational teaching and learning identified resources and displays should. whenever appropriate, include reference to cultural diversity. The majority of vocational teaching staff will have had little opportunity to update the skills needed to work in a multi-cultural environment. As they possibly will have had no initial training and for some, no experience of classes of a cultural mix, it would indicate a major area of future in-service training needs.

A number of respondents identified finance as playing a major part in the ability to participate. It was identified as a barrier in the initial stages of transnational activity, in maintaining the links and partnerships after first contact had been made and in regulating the number of staff participating. Costs associated with the release of staff, cover costs and time associated with writing bids, as well as subsequent travel and subsistence costs were mentioned. Responses indicated the majority of curriculum projects and any further development undertaken was reliant on financial assistance from the European Union.

And finally....

The importance of developing personal contacts was seen as a time-consuming but vital process in the success of any link. Furthermore, this personal contact can lead to a change in the attitudes of both staff and students. As a Finnish colleague said " *real connections and real action are more effective than academic studies if you want to change attitudes.*"

Opportunities to participate in transnational activities is a means not only of providing a relevant, up-to-date focus on training issues across Europe, but can be a cost effective and efficient way of extending and disseminating the professional up-dating of staff. The study provided a snapshot of how institutions are beginning to use transnational mobility as an extension to their in-service training and development. For Thomas Danby College, trainer exchanges are proving invaluable, not only in personal development but also in the enrichment of classroom practice. They have acted as a catalyst for curriculum development and visiting staff and students have enriched the daily life of the College. The effort is well worth the rewards it brings.

91

Internationalisation as a challenge for vocational colleges in Europe

Ronald Mönch, Hochschule Bremen

The article of Mr. Mönch deals with the challenge of internationalising colleges, also focusing on the competitive challenge presented to publicly funded colleges – by commercial and private colleges. Even though Hochschule Bremen is a university level college, the article provides inspiration and food for thought for vocational colleges as well.

Internationalisation is a 'mega-theme' for society, and thus it must be also for colleges.

Internationalisation is like a stone that has been cut repeatedly – the many facets glitter in different colours according to how we turn this stone and contemplate it. Let me first illuminate just a few of these facets and then dwell on certain points in more depths.

- Internationalisation firstly brings about a form of *transparency*. That might seem banal, yet it was neither typical of the policy of the so-called modern nation state nor for colleges themselves. College systems, their goals and methods are becoming public knowledge – a college-benchmarking is coming into existence. These changes will be a source for further potential changes.
- Generally speaking, *realization and cognition* has a *peacemaking* effect. This central aspect of international openness is all too often overshadowed by a discussion on EU contributions, on migration and on the 'price' that every change costs.
- Internationalisation has a *motoric* effect that is only inadequately rendered by such concepts as market and competition.
- The (German) 'Fachhochschulen' have learned from British dynamism, the Dutch 'hogescholen' have learned from the 'Fachhochschulen'; the 'Fachhochschulen' are now learning from the dynamism of the Dutch – my own scientific interest is very much focused on the relationship between the Flemish and Walloon regions of Belgium, etc.
- An international perspective may, however, also produce its opposite: vanity and ethnocentricity, and a fear of change may result in obstinacy to change.
- To an important extent, internationalisation is part of a *professional competence*. I dare to advance the hypothesis that we Europeans must communicate this international competence to 100% of our students. Hochschule Bremen, of which I am the principal, is – with its two thirds international courses of study and almost 40% student mobility – well along when it comes to internationalisation; nevertheless, we are still far from our goal of 100%. The highest possible degree of internationalisation is, then, a lasting development challenge in the structuring of colleges.

- And, already on the way towards this goal, we experience what qualitative and quantitative demands all of us are met with: In terms of *language*, the Dutch have probably gone furthest. When it comes to *mobility*, all of us probably have numbers that are most unsatisfactory. This has to do with the fundamental question of how we can help *outgoing, incoming and receiving students* in establishing a good relationship to each other, as long as English dominates as primary language.
- Naturally, internationalisation has also been used as a crucial element of *institutional profiling*, especially in the regional and national frameworks.
- Part of this institutional aspect are the efforts being made by European colleges to 'sell' their courses and services to other countries, i.e. to function as new competitors in regional and national markets that traditionally have been closed. So far, these institutions have, however, remained 'in situ', i.e. they are trying to attract additional incoming students.
- A (new) issue belongs to this systemic perspective – that colleges from financially strong and privately funded college cultures may become competitors via local branches (*Hochschulefilialen*). I will return to this later, with two actual examples from Northern Germany.
- Between these solutions we find more and more mixed solutions – these range right from the franchising of foreign degrees (Bachelor, Master, MBA) to complete English-language teaching offers e.g. that of the newly established 'International University in Germany' in Bruchsal.
- There is thus a question inherent in internationalisation: Are our national cultures and identities potentially *under threat, or on the line*? I am probably right in assuming that this potential conflict could be of particular importance for the Netherlands and Flanders. Although at a time when teaching in Germany is given in the lingua franca, i.e. English, the debate in Germany is no less intense.
- Typical of all German colleges is *the absolute dominance of the state*. At local foreign branches of colleges, the language of instruction or the titles that may be gained are always both a matter of local politics and national decisions. It is extremely interesting to follow where and in which direction 'the state' is moving. To the observer, the totality of steps being taken would seem to be rather incoherent, sometimes even self-contradictory.
- The *element of movement* is, however, remarkable in itself. Federal President Herzog has for the past eighteen months been adamantly calling for an internationally oriented reform of politics and society (the 'Berlin Speech'). Rüthgers, the German Minister of Education who has now left office, has politically prepared for this international orientation in the framework legislation for colleges.
- In the increasing internationalisation, elements of intellectual and mental enrichment *and* individual uncertainty are inextricably intertwined. However, this issue will not be covered in this paper.

- One thing is, however, quite clear: Intercultural experience changes more than one might assume in the space of roughly a year of study and life in relation to the many years of previous education. Above all, it is linked to a new and often changed *position towards one's own culture*.

When we make the effort to try and find formulas that sum up internationalisation at the levels of college systems, institutions and players, then it is perhaps possible to paraphrase it fairly accurately by using the opposing concepts of *openness and closedness, of innovation and resistance to change, of own and other* (Eigenem und Fremdem).

Inherent in this conclusion is that 'internationalisation has its price', that it may be both beneficial and painful at the same time.

The consequences of this are that precisely internationalisation – apparently only positive in the sense of systemic, institutional and personal emancipation – presents enormous challenges to everybody working at colleges. The situation of the outgoing, the incoming and the receiving students and staff calls for considerably more preparation, accompaniment and help in all areas than is often assumed.

All of this could be termed 'customer orientation', but it also is something much more, and much more profound.

These considerations entail necessarily a re-definition of the relationship of teaching staff to both their institution and to the students. And we must also realistically assume that internationalisation will, in the long term, remain *fragmentary*. This entails that colleges will have to learn to live with *internal differentiation* in the long term: they will have two different cultures, rather like a company where a strong *export-orientation* changes the corporate culture and focus, which until now has been regional or national.

If I may use Hochschule Bremen as an example: It has become clear to me in the course of a relatively rigid *strategy of internationalisation* that this process – as soon as it becomes *real* – creates resistance and friction also in places where one might not have expected it, i.e. from the students, who, sensing the 'wind of change', feel themselves marginalised (for highly different reasons).

I hope that all this has made it clear that internationalisation is not a matter of choice. Internationalisation is a necessary, irreversible process about which we at present only know some of the opportunities it offers, some of the burdens it involves and some of what we have to do in order 'to ride the tiger'.

Concerning research and scholarship, in a good traditional sense, it must be assumed that present-day internationalisation will link up once more with the earlier traditions of the first centuries of universities. This research-inherent nature of internationalisation has always remained alive in *scholarship*; *study* is thus the new world of internationalisation, i.e. under the sign of mass-colleges, of a non-elitist academic vocational education and training.

To conclude these rather general considerations, let me just briefly examine an element of internationalisation that is difficult to place: the information highway. Without our actually having defined the open concept of internationalisation, it would seem as if internationalisation had something to do with mobility and language, with change of

location and international dialogue. But can internationalisation not also be spoken of when, in the familiar workplace, the world is brought to one's familiar location via the Internet without the slightest mobility being involved? And, if all of this functions so wonderfully, what will then happen to mobility, i.e. to *direct* encounters, without experience from personal contact between the different cultures? On the Internet or using broadwave communication cultures meet in the *alienation of a third area*. It is worth thinking about these complex issues and about the consequences for communication and cultural exchange.

Topical issues in Germany

- The debate of the past two years has undoubtedly been dominated by the theme of the introduction of Anglo-American degrees – Bachelor and Master degrees dominate the debate. The comprehensive amendment of the federal framework legislation on colleges (Das Hochschulrahmengesetz, HRG), which the Länder flesh out with their own laws on colleges, has now permitted the awarding of these so-called international degrees. In the run-up to this innovation, *assessment procedures* have been introduced into many of the Länder; the new degrees are in addition to be linked to *accreditation*. At present, much debate – some of it controversial – is taking place within the framework of the conference of vice chancellors and principals of colleges (Hochschulrektorenkonferenz, HRK), which is the joint conference for universities and vocational colleges. The crux of this debate is the awarding of Master degrees by vocational colleges.
- The Minister of Education in Saxony, Meyer, has made the terse comment that this development is an example of being 'intoxicated with America'. It should be noted that the minister himself has been a professor of English. So we may be curious as to whether the implementation will be successful.
- The declared aim is to enhance the attractiveness of German colleges to meet the market demand from German applicants presently going to USA, UK, Australia, Canada, etc. Many questions are as yet unresolved, including that of the language of instruction. The new federal government does not want to question this part of the reform of the HRG.
- A further topical issue is the *financing of studies and of the study phase* in the future. People are fond of quoting the sarcastic remark made in this connection by an American guest professor, who described German colleges as *academic slum*. In the context of this conference only a small aspect can be mentioned: the GFR is thinking in terms of a pure *government allocation* for all state colleges (and practically all of them are such), not of having them co-financed by the students in the form of *fees*. Until now, the Länder have been allowed to introduce fees – although they have not done so. The coalition agreement between the SPD and 'die Grünen' now envisages that in future the imposition of fees will be *forbidden* by a federal law, more exactly the HRG. Whether this plan will improve the international compatibility of German colleges remains to be seen. At the same time, the federal government has announced a sharp increase in federal funding for colleges.

- A noticeable tension exists between the announced prohibition of fees (this would affect about 98% of the students) and the attempts being made in many Länder to establish *private colleges with the aid of 'juicy' fees*, and to facilitate their start in the competition to government funding. Most recently, the following steps have been taken:
    - International University in Germany (Bruchsal, government contribution of DEM 25 m – CDU/FDP government)
    - Stuttgart Institute of Management and Technology (also DEM 25 m). Both institutions are 'German' foundations.

  The recently agreed establishment of a private university in cooperation with American Purdue University is referred to as 'Harvard an der Leine': Worth noting is that the Schröder state chancellery in Hannover, it is rumoured, did not even consult the Ministry of Education when this foundation took place. There are rumours of annual fees amounting to approx. DEM 30.000. Niedersachsen is a region governed by SPD.

  The situation concerning the establishment of the 'International University' in Bremen is similar, a region governed by SPD/CDU contributes with a sum of 300 mio. DM, and there is talk of annual tuition fees of approx. 24.000 DM. This university is a joint venture with Rice University and MIT.

  Similar plans have been announced by Kassel (Hessen – SPD/Grüne), Hamburg (SPD/Grüne) and Berlin.

The following applies to all the new institutions: English is the language of instruction. And: Tuition fees can in the end not be high enough. And lastly: considerable contributions from industry are expected. Using Rice University as a comparison – Rice is a private, smallish university of some 4,000 students: US$ 1 billion initial capital, US$ 2 mio. in weekly expenses. The Bremen project is reckoning on DEM 1 billion as initial capital.

No matter how we may assess these plans, certain things are clear:

- The German government itself no longer reckons on continuing traditional government financing.
- The number of state-run colleges will gradually diminish
- The future lies in a partnership between the private and the public sector.
- This will make Germany an attractive place to study for an 'elite', no matter how this is to be defined in the tension between money and talent.
- English becomes a criterion of modernity.
- The public legal structures remain in place for less talented and/or financially less well off students.

The market has not yet been able to pass judgement on these new endeavours – we are allowed to remain curious.

Outlook

As my final remarks I have two statements:

- We are modern in our internationalisation concept, one that emphasises personal mobility.
- We must, however, substantially strengthen our *strategic partnerships* – and that means, above all, creating synergy between teaching and research by means of international readerships (Dozenturen).

This paper is a translated version of a speech given by Ronald Mönch at "Zwölfte Deutsch-Niederländische Hochschulkonferenz" in Antwerp, October 1998.

The internationalisation of vocational education and training: the Australian experience

Tony Crooks, IDP Education Australia Ltd.

Although the main issue in this publication is internationalising vocational education and training in Europe, Mr Crooks' article is interesting as a contrast to how we think of internationalisation in Europe. Mr Crooks in his article describes the Australian situation.

I. The vocational education & training sector in Australia

The Vocational Education and Training (VET) sector is regarded in Australia as one of the four main international educational sectors, along with higher education, schools and English language training.

Institutions in the VET sector may be categorised as government-funded institutions or privately-funded institutions. The government-funded institutions are known as Technical and Further Education institutions or TAFEs. On the other hand are the private training organisations, including private colleges and industry training centres.

There are 102 publicly funded TAFE institutions, offering programs on 692 campuses. TAFE is, indeed, the largest provider of tertiary education courses in Australia, with 1.2 million students enrolled in institutes of TAFE in 1999.

TAFE institutes provide initial and further education at professional, trade and operative levels. The courses are developed in collaboration with industry and the community to ensure that training is relevant to industry and community needs.

Private institutions offer a wide range of programs such as pilot training, tourism and hospitality and business studies. 2,217 private providers are registered to deliver national qualifications.

Qualifications

Australian VET system qualifications are based on the attainment of industry competency standards. Qualifications are awarded according to what people can actually do, rather than how long they have spent in training. As a result, there are many pathways to a qualification, including formal courses, and formal or informal training completed while on the job. The award of a qualification is based on assessment of the individual's abilities against the industry competency standards. Work-related learning and assessment are regular features of qualifications.

Arrangements for entry and credit transfer are more flexible than in other sectors of education. Entry standards are defined in terms of industry standards and may be gained through the attainment of a lower, related qualification, or through the Recognition of Prior Learning (RPL).

All VET providers must offer students RPL on request. Students can gain credit for the competence no matter how, when or where they have obtained it. A typical process might involve interviews, undertaking sample assessments and presenting a portfolio of evidence. There are other significant advantages. RPL eases the movement from one sector to another, which is one of the distinctive characteristics of Australian education. Study at senior secondary school or university may be used to gain entry to a VET course and to gain exemption from certain parts. Competence gained through work is also recognised.

The direct relationship between industry competency standards and qualifications is leading towards a universal system of portable qualifications and automatic credit transfer. This makes it easy to move from one provider to another. In Australia, VET providers are required to recognise qualifications and units of competence issues by other VET providers, and to give automatic credit to students enrolling in related courses. This means, for example, that a student can start a qualification with one registered VET provider and finish with another anywhere in the country.

The benefits to international students will be obvious. The arrangements allow them to concentrate on what they need to learn without having to repeat previous study.

The qualifications themselves are defined through a single nation-wide system introduced in 1995, and know as the Australian Qualifications Framework (AQF). The AQF establishes standard titles and levels for courses across Australia. VET qualification titles are as follows:

- ***Certificate I:*** reflects the capacity to understand and undertake a defined range of activities in a particular industry field, with necessary supervision
- ***Certificate II***: reflects the capability to understand and undertake more complex activities than required for Certificate I, with limited direction
- ***Certificate III***: demands technical specialisation and possibly responsibility for others; requires a high level of self-management and technical capability
- ***Certificate IV***: can include a full trade qualification, a field of technical specialisation and a certain level of leadership
- ***Diploma***: includes planning and initiating new approaches, self-direction and making judgments about technology and/or management. The nominal time for novices is one to two years of full-time study; this can, however, be reduced through RPL
- ***Advanced Diploma***: the nominal time taken to achieve this qualification is two to three years of full-time study, which may be reduced through RPL. These awards denote para-professional competence, or a high level of technical specialisation, as well as management responsibility. Advanced Diplomas articulate into bachelor degrees with advanced standing.

These qualifications in turn fit into the larger framework of the AQF. The framework sets the context for credentialling, credit transfer articulation between institutions and courses, and student mobility within and between the sectors.

There are 12 AQF qualifications altogether. Table 1 shows the typical relationship between the sectors and the qualifications they issue.

The AQF facilitates:

- recognition of knowledge and skills acquired previously through study or experience, regardless of how, when or where they were acquired;
- articulation between qualification levels;
- the creation of education pathways for individuals within and between institutions and sectors;
- lifelong learning – whereby people are able to return to education and training to acquire new and updated skills and qualifications.

Quality assurance

With such a flexible training system, quality assurance has to be an important issue.

VET providers are quality assured, registered and audited by the State or Territory Training Authority. They have to meet established standards for staffing, equipment, facilities, finances, record keeping, marketing and provision of student services. They must have a code of conduct and make it available to all students. Registered VET providers are audited by a panel of peers, industry representatives and specialists in the training area.

In addition to this, institutions registered to enrol international students must comply with Federal legislation in the form of the Education Services for Overseas Students (ESOS) Act. In accordance with the Act, all service providers are bound by the *Code of Practice in the Provision of International Education and Training Services*. This code provides the basis for regulation, and requires institutions offering courses to overseas students to:

- maintain a trust account into which student fees are paid, and draw on these fees only in accordance with the act;
- ensure that marketing practices are ethical; and
- ensure that correct enrolment procedures are followed.

The Act also provides for the Tuition Assurance Scheme (TAS), which provides protection for individual students of private institutions who fail to fully deliver the contracted service. Students may either receive a refund or fees, or receive the service from an alternative provider without further cost.

II. Australia in international education: historical perspective

The history of Australia's involvement in international education may be divided for the sake of convenience into four phases. The first of these phases consisted essentially of an outward flow *from* Australia.

From the time the first Australian university was established in 1851, the need for international scholarly contact was given high priority. The need stemmed particularly from Australia's geographical remoteness from centres of learning in Europe and North

America and the recognition that its standards must be recognised internationally. Consequently, prior to the Second World War, the international dimension in Australian education was largely a one-way outward flow – higher degree study by Australian scholars was undertaken in the UK or North America.

In the new geopolitical situation which emerged in the aftermath of World War Two, the situation changed considerably as Australia launched a large-scale international aid program. From 1951 onwards, and throughout the 1950's and 1960's, Australia was a key player in the Colombo Plan for Cooperative Development in South and Southeast Asia. The Colombo Plan marked the entry of the Australian government into the direct sponsorship of overseas students for study in Australian institutions.

The next major shift in policy followed the release in 1984 of the Report of the Committee to review the Australian Overseas Aid Program (the Jackson Report), which proposed that education should be regarded as an export industry. In line with the recommendations of this Report, in 1985 a new Overseas Student Policy was introduced by the Australian government whereby overseas students could be enrolled in Australian institutions, without numerical limits, provided: firstly, that they met the institutions' entry requirements; secondly, that they did not displace an Australian student; and thirdly, that they paid the full cost of their courses. Significantly, these fees were to be paid directly to the educational institutions. The shift from a philosophy of "educational aid" to "educational trade" had commenced.

The Australian move to adopt a commercial stance in the marketing of education services met initially with criticism overseas. Senior government officials, especially those in ministries of education in Southeast Asia, objected to the hard-sell approach and the linking of educational promotion with the trade and marketing offices of the Australian diplomatic missions. An early effect of the new "marketing of education" initiative was a large influx of students in "non-formal" courses, and an unacceptable degree of illegal immigration, dubious recruiting practices and the financial collapse of some private institutions.

Within the tertiary education sectors a few entrepreneurial institutions moved quickly to recruit fee-paying students but most moved more cautiously. A positive outcome was that both Federal and State governments introduced regulatory legislation, most significantly, the Education Services for Overseas Students Act (known as the ESOS Act) of 1991, and there was institutional and government support for the establishment of a network of Australian Education Centres by IDP Education Australia (IDP).

Notwithstanding the cautious start, during the second half of the 1980's and into the 1990's most Australian institutions were actively recruiting overseas students, the prime driving force being the income potential. At the same time, there was concern in the tertiary sectors generally about the dominance of the "trade" emphasis.

Gradually, there evolved a growing appreciation in Australian institutions that the benefits from the enrolment of overseas students went far beyond commercial returns. While the focus in the late 1980's and at the beginning of the 1990's was firmly on the economic returns, there was a subsequent change of emphasis, signalled in 1992 by an announcement by the then Minister for Employment, Education and Training, Kim

Beazley, regarding government policy on the internationalisation of education. This change of focus involved, and I quote:

> "...a move away from a concentration on exporting student places to a recognition of the wider activities integrally involved in international education and the wider, sometimes indirect, benefits which flow from seeking to internationalise our education systems."

Thus, following on from the "aid" and "trade" phases of international education policy, there emerged the notion of 'internationalisation'.

The recognition of the significance of "internationalisation" as opposed to "trade" in education has gradually changed perceptions with regard to the export of education. This transition has seen:

- the disappearance of the term "fee-paying overseas student" and its replacement with the term "international student";
- the raising of the profile of internationalisation;
- the development of new organisational structures for internationalisation;
- the specific reference to the internationalisation process in mission statements and strategic plans;
- an acceptance of the importance of key issues such as the internationalisation of the curriculum; and
- enhanced familiarity with overseas qualifications and awards and equivalence with Australian higher education awards.

Here we are now, then, in a mature phase of internationalisation in Australian education. The excessive commercialism that characterised the late 1980's has been toned down, and a broader approach to internationalisation had developed. Nevertheless, the recruitment of international students remains a key priority of most Australian tertiary institutions.

Let us now turn to the numbers and see how government policy and Australia's marketing effort has impacted on the student flows to Australia.

III. International student data

Since the introduction of the Overseas Student Policy, there has been a rapid, significant increase in the numbers of international student in Australia, from 10,000 in 1985 to over 150,000 today. However, the double-digit growth rate during the mid-1990's was slowed down considerably by the slump in the Asian economies in 1997 and 1998. The impact of the economic difficulties was felt most keenly in the English language training sector. However, 1999 has seen a 'bottoming-out' of this slump and a return to growth in excess of 5%.

Taking a few historical snapshots, and looking at the breakdown by sector, we find that:

- In 1990, there were more international students in English language training institutions than in any of the other sectors. The higher education sector accounted for less than

one-third of international students, and the vocational education and training sector had 15% of international enrolments.

- Following a crisis in the English language industry, by 1994, the English language sector accounted for less than a quarter of all international student enrolments. The demand in the higher education sector had maintained a steady course, while the increasingly professionalised VET sector has garnered a quarter of the market.
- 1998 finds the English language sector suffering the shock of its second major blow – the Asian economic meltdown. The higher education sector has strengthened significantly, and now claims 50% of all international students in Australia; VET remains stable at 25%.

In terms of markets for Australian education across the board, the principal source country in 1998 was Indonesia, providing, in the midst of its social and political upheavals – even, perhaps, because of these upheavals – 17,462 students to all sectors. Indonesia is followed by the three big higher education markets: Hong Kong (17,132 students), Malaysia (15,664) and Singapore (15,596).

Looking at the 1998 figures on a regional basis, 83% are from Asia, 6% from Europe and 3% from the Americas.

Focussing, now, specifically on the VET sector, Table 2 confirms the sustained growth over a decade of international students in this sector. The leading source country for this sector is India, with 4,860 enrolments in 1998; over 60% of all Indians in the Australian education system are in the VET sector. Other important countries for this sector are Indonesia (4,776 students), Korea (4,066) and Japan (3,301).

The most popular field of study among international students in VET institutions in 1998 was Business, Administration and Economies, constituting 56% of all enrolments. Within this category, 75% were studying in the Business and Administration sub-category. Just under 8% of students were enrolled on Science programs, with a significant proportion of those studying in the Computer Science sub-category.

32% of international students were in government-funded institutes of TAFE, and 68% in privately-funded institutions.

Where does this leave Australia in the global international education stakes? It leaves it as a major provider of education and training services. Australia is the choice of 5% of the world's international student population of about 3 million. This places Australia in the top five exporters of education, along with the United States, France, Germany and the United Kingdom. But it is important to remember that, as far as population is concerned, Australia is a small country of 18 million inhabitants – a little more than the size of the Netherlands.

In terms of contribution to the national economy, education is ranked as the second most significant service export, after tourism and hospitality. In 1998, international students contributed the equivalent of an estimated 4.2 billion DM to the Australian economy. This estimate comprises 2 billion DM in fees paid directly to institutions and 2.2 billion DM in expenditure on goods and services such as accommodation, food and transportation. The contribution of the VET sector to this total was 950 million DM, comprising 445 million DM in fees and 505 million DM in goods and services.

IV. Marketing Australian education

Three bodies are responsible for the international marketing of Australian education. These are: (i) the collective body of the institutions themselves, (ii) IDP Education Australia, and (iii) Australian Education International.

The institutions

The entrepreneurial efforts of the higher education and VET sectors have been instrumental in the internationalisation of education in Australia.

The role of institutions initially comprised the provision of courses to overseas students within the framework of Australia's aid program. Subsequent policy changes have facilitated competition among education and training providers to increase their export performance, particularly, but not exclusively, in relation to full-fee paying students.

The introduction of a more commercial or market-oriented approach by Australian institutions saw the industry focus more clearly on the needs of the client. In adopting a more client-oriented approach the VET sector has moved to increase the range and quality of services that are offered by Australian providers. Institutions have introduced a more internationally-oriented approach to their services, particularly with respect to curriculum, teaching methods, research and student services. The industry has established staff and student exchanges, cooperative agreements with other international institutions, training cooperations, licensing and franchising arrangements, international qualifications, offshore campuses, and distance education.

The VET sector is increasingly refining its approach to market development and its commercial practices. This has included:

- restructuring operations within institutions to include an international office within the line management. The international office provides the infrastructure for all the appropriate services necessary for overseas students. The roles, responsibilities and reporting lines for the international offices vary greatly across the country. Some offices are responsible for pre-award programs such as English language courses, many manage international projects, and some operate offshore campuses. Most have full responsibility for international student recruitment, as well as for international student welfare and support;
- including explicit reference to international activities or internationalisation goals in their prospectus or mission statements;
- the appointment of education agents both in Australia and overseas to represent the interests of Australian education and training providers;
- the formation of an industry body – Australia TAFE International Network (ATIN) – specifically to address international issues; and
- the formation of consortia to maximise the opportunities arising from international education and training participation.

Although education and training services have in the past been regarded wholly as a public good rather than a marketable commodity, VET institutions have been instrumental in developing both aspects of the industry.

Individual institutions have actively promoted the cultural, socio-economic benefits of international education and training. They have also increasingly adopted a business-like approach to their engagement in international activities with a view to generating additional "export" income for their institution. In this context they are no different to any other industry and have exhibited normal business practices, including the development of:

- services and markets;
- industry codes of practice, and monitoring of performance against these;
- business plans outlining strategic directions, including opportunities for further growth; and
- lobbying Government and related organisations to influence policy directions that might impact on the industry's capacity to expand.

The institutions are both guided and assisted in their marketing efforts by my own company, IDP Education Australia, to which we now turn.

IDP Education Australia

IDP exists to promote Australian education and training expertise internationally. One of the ways in which it achieves this goal is through the recruitment of international students to Australian institutions, in return for which it receives a commission from the institution. IDP receives no funding from any source other than the fees it generates. It is a commercial body owned directly by all of Australia's universities through an equal shareholding. It currently operates through 60 offices in 40 countries on 6 continents.

Alongside and in support of its student recruitment business, a number of subsidiary businesses have grown up. These include:

- education exhibitions, mini-fairs and interview programs; in 1999 IDP is organising over 250 promotional events around the globe;
- publications to inform students about Australian education , in which institutions can profile themselves; the range includes a web-site and a CD-ROM, as well as printed publications in 16 languages;
- the International English Language Testing System, or IELTS, a test developed and owned jointly by IDP, the British Council and the University of Cambridge to measure international students' ability in academic English.

IDP represents all sectors of education, and approximately 20% of all international students in Australia are recruited through IDP. In the countries where IDP is operational, the average proportion of students enrolling through IDP is 35%.

Australian Education International

In November 1994 the Government launched the Australian International Education Foundation (AIEF), which had as its mission to strengthen the government/industry partnership and to promote and market Australian education and training services overseas. While government support for the international education industry had been

sought at the time, there was some disappointment that the Foundation became involved in areas where Australian education was already successful, such as Malaysia and Thailand, and neglected to use its position to open up new markets for Australia, such as Latin America and Europe, where its presence has been underfunded.

In the 1996 budget, funding for the AIEF was withdrawn, forcing it to depend on industry support, which was not forthcoming. In 1997 the AIEF was abolished and, after some hiatus, in its place there arose Australian Educational International (AEI). The AEI has funding from government and charges subscription fees to institutions. It offers a good web-based market intelligence service, and has a network of Education Counsellors operating out of Australian Diplomatic Missions in ten locations. Many of its services duplicate those of IDP, but it is unable to enrol students in to an institution.

V. Marketing vocational education and training in the international arena: the ten golden rules

1. Define the role of government

One of the most important issues is to define an appropriate role in the export of education for government. There have been, over the years, interventions by the Australian government that have been beneficial to the Australian international education industry, and there have been interventions that have been detrimental.

There is a significant role for government in the internationalisation of education. There are areas where Government support for the providers of education and training can add value or lead to improved outcomes above those which might be achieved through the institutions' own efforts. Among these I include:

- government-to-government activity to open up market access;
- dialogue with overseas governments on the recognitions of education and training systems and qualifications;
- support for the development of new markets;
- sponsoring and coordination of visits to Australia by key opinion leaders from overseas so that they have a positive picture of Australia's capabilities in education and training;
- generic promotion of Australia as a quality study destination;
- design of regulatory measures to support and develop the industry. A good example of this is the development in Australia of the ESOS Act. The Act was developed, and subsequent amendments and regulations made, to address threats to Australia's reputation for high quality education, which emerged as our education export industry grew. The ESOS Act gave legislative force to the best practice of institutions offering courses to overseas students.

The role of Government is *not*, in my view, to compete with the private sector for dollars in developed markets, nor to be working one-on-one with individual institutions.

Another area where government can have an impact for better or for worse is in the field of immigration policy. Does the Department of Immigration facilitate the industry or does it constrain it? Does the Department welcome international students or deter them?

2. Research your markets

When you are considering entering a new geographic market, proceed with caution and research the market exhaustively. Take time to build the relationships that are going to be necessary to do business in a particular country. Understand the culture. Learn the language. Consider what you are trying to achieve in the market. Is the goal to recruit students to institutions in Germany? Or to deliver your courses into the country in question? Or to seek project opportunities? Whichever of these options you are pursuing, it will be necessary to be offering products that accord with the needs of the government of the day; this in turn requires an awareness is needed of government-to-government dialogue.

Adding a new market to your portfolio involves significant costs: travel is obvious, but the costs of creating, translating and duplicating promotional materials are often overlooked.

The reason for caution is that it is frequently easier to enter a market than it is to exit a market. Particularly for government-funded institutions, walking away from a failing market is often not an option: the impact on bilateral relations in education and training could be too serious.

3. Position your product

Determine who your competitors are and define clearly what it is that differentiates you from them. Highlight what it is that is unique about your product. This process applies at the national level, the sectoral and at the level of the individual institution.

In Australia, for example, at the national level we see ourselves as competing in Asian markets with the English-speaking study destination of the United States and the United Kingdom. The UK has a formidable history and weight of tradition behind its education system, and we would be foolish to attempt to compete with the UK on this ground. In our marketing, therefore, we tend to emphasise the youthfulness, the innovations, the up-to-dateness of Australian education. The US benefits immeasurably from being the home of globally recognised popular culture. Again, Australia cannot compete on this turf. What we do, then, is highlight the adventure of the unknown.

Targeting and focus are basic principles of successful brand-building, which is your goal. Enormous sums are wasted by institutions on poorly targeted or inappropriate advertising. This represents product-push rather than the market-pull responsiveness and flexibility, which a highly competitive global market demands. The first question in the mind of an institution marketing representative should be why would the student choose my institution in preference to all others? Is it price, course quality, flexibility, employment prosects, prestige, security, or what?

A further point to remember with regard to positioning is that there are huge dangers in proliferating brand names by extending the product line. Line extension is rarely good strategic marketing. In fact, I would go so far as to suggest that if you want to build a powerful brand in the mind of customers, you need to contract your product line, not expand it. Some of the world's most successful companies have become victims of this trap (eg. Coca-Cola, American Express, Proctor & Gamble): education and training institutions are even more susceptible because of their highly devolved structures. It is

difficult to stop individual departments and course leaders from creating their own separate sub-brands and promotional campaigns. However, remember that, in building international brand equity, the guiding principle is: the more you diffuse, the greater the loss of focus and familiarity. IDP has found that it has most success in selling an institution's courses when the institution has understood its few real strengths, and tailors the international marketing efforts accordingly.

4. Collaboration before competition

International education today is so competitive that no institution can afford to "go it alone" in terms of marketing. Research consistently shows that, in making decisions concerning an international education, students decide on the country before they make any other decision such as institutions or field of study. The message is clear: collaborate with other national institutions to attract the students to your country; then collaborate with other regional institutions to attract the students to your region; then compete with your collaborators to attract the students to your institution.

One of the most effective means of collaboration with other institutions is to establish marketing consortia with institutions in your region from other educational sectors. A VET institution has little to lose and much to gain from collaborating with a reputable local secondary school – any students they recruit now are your potential future clients. Similarly, do not underestimate the allure of higher education; a marketing relationship and preferably an articulation arrangement with a university is likely to be to the advantage of both institutions. In Australia, consortia such as Education Adelaide and the Western Australia International Education Marketing Group, operating under the slogan: "Perth: Education City" are successfully making inroads into the market share of the prestigious Sydney- and Melbourne-based institutions.

5. Partnership with industry

I am aware that there is a strong partnership between the VET sector and industry in Germany. This is entirely appropriate, and the point does not need to be laboured here. The sector in Australia similarly seeks to select industry bodies that are leaders in the field – or future leaders – to have input in to the development of qualifications that are globally relevant and that will ensure that graduates are welcomed by international industry.

TAFE New South Wales, for example, identified early on the Association of Chartered Certified Accountants (ACCA), based in the UK, as their global benchmark. They negotiated recognition with ACCA, which responded by providing advice and materials and contributed to the fleshing out of competency standards. TAFE NSW and ACCA together developed joint examinations. ACCA was subsequently adopted by the United Nations as their international benchmark in accounting standards. The outcome for TAFE NSW is that, when they go off-shore with their courses and qualifications to, for example, Malaysia, the program has higher recognition than local Malaysian accounting programs.

6. Be prepared to be flexible...

It may be necessary to introduce significant innovations and structural changes to meet the demand of the fee-paying client. One of the strengths of Australian education is the flexibility that it has developed in terms of cross-crediting, RPL and articulation pathways.

This flexibility, which benefits Australian students, has been developed largely in response to internationalisation. Mid-year entry to programs has expanded to accommodate student from countries operating on a different academic calendar from Australia. Articulation of the secondary, vocational education and university systems has developed partly in response to demand from Asian students seeking to upgrade their qualifications.

There have been developments, too, in the area of flexible, cumulative credit systems that will enable students to transfer between programs and institutions both nationally and internationally. The Australian system has proven itself flexible, too, in the customisation of course design. The range of courses in Australia developed specifically for Asian students includes programs in business management, public administration, education and tourism & hospitality.

7. ...but maintain quality

However, resist any temptation to compromise on quality. Students, and their parents, are investing large mounts of money on training that they believe is going to be an investment for life. Do not reduce the value of their investment by cheapening it. Quality always attracts a premium. Increasing competition will only serve to make educational quality even more of an issue.

Practices such as the lowering of entry requirements in order to meet short-term recruitment targets can only be detrimental in the long term. Research conducted by IDP in 1997 among students from Malaysia, Indonesia, Thailand and India demonstrates that international students consistently rate "standard of courses" and "recognition of qualification" as the two most important criteria in their selection of study program, each being allocated an average score of 4.5 out of 5; "cost" was allocated an average score of 4.0. A further point worth bearing in mind is that you need to have the support of the entire institutional community for your internationalisation program, rather than having teachers complain about "falling standards".

8. Choose your overseas representatives with care

If you are appointing education agents to represent you in other countries, bear in mind that, in the minds of potential students, these agents *are* your institution. Ideally, agents should be products of your own education system, even alumni of your own institution – a model that is used to great effect by the Americans.

The relationship of trust between the agent and the institution should be unquestionable. It goes without saying that the agent should be entirely competent, following up student enquiries and applications, and responding to institutions with minimal delay. A poor agent can kill a market off for you.

In my experience, there is an inherent conflict of interest when agents represent institutions from different countries. Moreover, the differential commissions charged by agents to institutions has intensified competition between Australian institutions.

Once you have selected your agent, work on the relationship. Visit your agents regularly and ensure that they have adequate and up-to-date materials about your institution so that

they can do a first-rate selling job on your behalf. Invest in bringing your agents to your institution for familiarisation with the university and to form personal relationships with key staff.

9. Focus on student support

Your most powerful marketing tools is word-of-mouth. And, as students move away from being recipients of scholarships to fee-paying clients, they become very much more demanding. The provision of adequate student support is no longer an optional extra, but a key component of the package of services being purchased. Among the issues that need to be addressed with international students are: coping with cultural and social adjustment, meeting the needs of religious observance, fostering links with Australian students and the broader community, and dealing with unfamiliar accommodation, transport, food, budgeting, health care, and other arrangements.

Most Australian institutions accepting international students have specifically designated International Student Advisers on staff. There is a national Association of International Student Advisers with a vigorous program of professional development, aiming to make this area of servicing Australia's education and training industry an international best practice benchmark.

More than a decade of responding to the non-academic needs of students coming from a wide variety of offshore locations has given Australian institutions an ability to project important competitive advantage internationally in the area of non-academic support and pastoral care. There is an emerging view that competition for international students will increasingly expand from quality of education to include quality of experience and service.

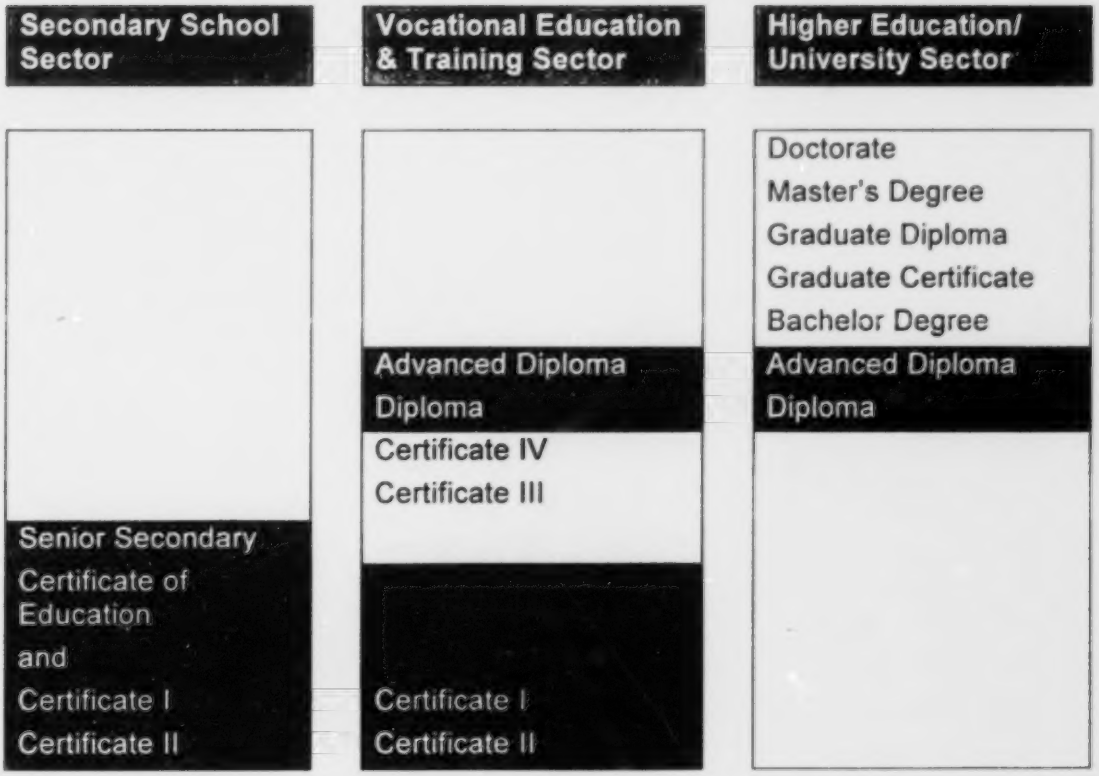
10. Target communications to the audience

Most educational advertising is designed to satisfy academics rather than to appeal to a youthful audience. The fact that the product that is being promoted is an educational one is no justification for advertising that is downright boring.

What is it that makes your institution different from all others? Whatever it is, however you are positioning your product, your advertising needs to reflect this in a way that young people can relate to. And – there should be no need to add – in a language that they can understand! The rubbish bins outside exhibition halls are full of unread promotional materials designed by amateurs who fondly imagine that they "have an eye" for advertising. If you can possibly afford to do so, use a professional to design your materials.

Table 1: Australian qualifications framework:

Typical relationship between educational sectors and qualifications offered



BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Table 2: Overseas student numbers in Australia by major sector 1988-1998

Year	*Higher Education*	*Vocational Education*	*School Education*	*ELICOS Colleges*	*TOTAL*
1988	2,393	5,976	2,532	10,217	21,118
1989	6,130	9,883	4,204	11,981	32,198
1990	14,379	7,137	7,792	17,757	47,065
1991	20,219	8,907	7,383	10,918	47,427
1992	30,297	9,773	7,794	4,676	52,540
1993	36,448	20,006	9,835	18,382	84,671
1994	41,244	24,199	10,979	23,544	99,966
1995	48,167	29,608	12,706	29,853	120,334
1996	53,939	37,759	15,289	36,080	143,067
1997	64,226	40,865	15,937	30,122	151,150
1998	73,383	37,328	13,878	22,541	147,130

---

[1] This paper was originally presented at a Conference entitled 'The Growing Market of Continuing Education: An international dialogue' hosted by the German Federal Ministry of Education and Research in Bonn on 13 and 14 December 1999 in cooperation with Arthur Andersen.

All of us must have a dream...

Riccardo Petrella, Catholic University of Louvain, interviewed by Norbert Wollschläger

In our discourse of globalisation and internationalisation we mostly speak of these developments as something being solely positive. In this interview Prof. Petrella expresses his views that globalisation may also be perceived as developments depersonalising us as human beings and desocialising our societies. A somewhat more pessimistic discourse than usually heard. But of course something positive taken too far may turn into something negative.

For about the past 25 years human labour has undergone a further process of depersonalisation and desocialisation: the individual has become a corporate asset, a 'human resource'. This has been mostly promoted and sold as progress. You have always disapproved of the concept of 'human resources'. Will you explain your position?

As a human being, each person is 'naturally' a citizen, entitled to collective rights (and duties). No authority of any kind has the power to attribute human (political, social, civil, economic) rights to the citizen. Human rights are *inherent* to any human being. They are *inalienable* and *irreversible*. No person has to prove the quality of his performance 'to obtain' (or 'to acquire') his rights. Basic human rights are equal for everybody independent of race, religion, physical abilities, mental gifts, sex, age, income, etc.

As a 'human resource', any person who is part of the active population has the right to an existence (i.e. to be 'employed' and have access to income and all the other 'rights' associated with a paid job) only while he/she is and remains a profitable human resource. Should his/her profitability diminish or vanish, a human resource would no longer have any right to an existence, and be employed. In fact, the predominant issue has significantly changed in the course of the past 15 to 20 years: our leaders speak more and more of the need to be employable ('the employability imperative') and less and less of the right to work. If present trends prevail for the next 20 years, our society will have to erase the concept and practice of the 'right to work' from our collective culture.

The better a company is endowed with skilled human resources, the more productive the company will be, the more competitive it will become, and the better the chances of the persons concerned of finding and keeping a job will be. Do you agree?

I largely disagree. Empirical evidence shows, first of all, that the more the level of skills is raised, the number of jobs available at such a level becomes smaller, except (in some circumstances) at the initial stage of the introduction of new knowledge and technology (when the demand for new jobs may be greater than the reduction of jobs linked with old skills and technologies). Secondly, the higher the skills and faster the speed of knowledge change, the greater the process of job substitution by new technologies, contributing to an increase in the level of unemployment. The same applies to job displacement. Skilled

people will move to sectors and areas where their incomes will be higher, creating a shortage of labour in those sectors and areas that cannot afford to provide equal levels of income.

More skills means the better for the strongest, in the richest countries, in the most profitable sectors and cities, in the most aggressive jobs.

Knowledge has become the fundamental resource of the new globalised economy in which the overriding objectives are competitiveness and share value. Consequently, companies should be interested in the best possible training for their employees. But what is the best possible training in a global market?

The knowledge that counts for companies and alas, also for public authorities that profess the gospel of competitiveness in the global marketplace, is knowledge which is directly appropriate and useful for improving ROI (return on investment) and ROE (return on equity). Companies' training curricula are strictly designed to achieve maximum productivity and profit. The MBA curricula are oriented towards and determined by markets, performance, profit, efficiency and finance.

The fact that in recent years modest lip service has been paid by MBA schools to 'ethical issues' and 'human factors' or 'human aspects' shows the knowledge that is still considered worth being taught in our countries is mainly economically oriented. If we consider the concept of 'knowledge society' invented by business leaders and MBA people, we should look with great scepticism and legitimate criticism at the fact that governments and institutions like the Commission of the European Communities and UNESCO have adopted enthusiastically this concept even though they are fully aware of its technocratic and business-oriented bias.

The American sociologist Richard Sennett has drawn our attention to the fact that professions are disappearing and careers are being substituted by jobs. Mobility, flexibility and adaptability have become credo and most working contracts are of limited and shorter duration. As identification is necessary for the successful functioning of any enterprise how can this imbalance be rectified?

Within the context of present financially driven global market capitalism, an enterprise is above all a machine for money. The rest is subordinated to it. A firm is mainly an instrument for capital owners and employers to become richer. Short-termism is the culture, the vision. Hence, the imperatives of mobility, flexibility and adaptability and the explosion of interim labour, part-time jobs, short-term employment contracts, and flexitime. Fidelity of middle and high-level managers to a firm in the USA is on average about two years (in western Europe it was about seven years until recently). The 'company project' is becoming more and more a 'financial target'. Mergers and acquisitions increase the volatility of companies' existence and history. Professions are fast becoming obsolete. Technological wars transform firms into killing machines targeting the innovative capacity of competitors. At the end of the process, the main objective of today's corporations is neither to create employment nor enhance new 'professions' but to destroy and displace

existing jobs and professions on a permanent basis with the aim of increasing financial capital productivity and profitability. We are rather far from the ideal image of the entrepreneur defined by Schumpeter as a 'creative destructor'.

The head of personnel of a German automobile factory once said: 'We are not looking for the top of the class but for the pupils' 'spokesman'.

Social responsibility is a low priority in today's companies and, hence, in training curricula. I was recently told by a student of mine that a professor of management at another Belgian university who was asked to comment on the role of trade unions within companies and society at large, answered 'the role of trade unions is a social issue for students of sociology and not for students of management'! The mainstream concept considers that 'social responsibility' has to be seen as an integral part of stakeholders' 'corporate governance'. By definition – we are told – 'corporate governance' implies that corporate decisions take the interests of all concerned parties into account (the 'stake-holders' comprise: shareholders, employees, customers, sub-contractors, the environment, local and national communities, etc.) and not only those of the shareholders. This is the best way – it is claimed – to behave in a socially responsible manner.

The story goes on to say that 'corporate governance' requires excellent people, excellent institutions and excellent infrastructures in order to yield excellent returns.

Recent developments in the global market and the creation of thousands of international mergers a year have provoked a new demand: international qualifications and intercultural competence. People have to be prepared to work internationally. In a certain sense this might be considered as something positive: to broaden one's mind, understand what is foreign or different, become aware of cultural diversities. Do you share this point of view?

It is certainly a major step forward to make it possible to organise efficiently the ability and ingenuity of managers and workers coming from different cultures, countries, languages, and experiences. Everyday life shows there is no easy way to manage a multinational and transcultural team of people in a multinational and/or global firm. The adopted model, however, depends less on the cultural vision of the firm leaders than on their product/market strategies. Trends towards knowledge, competencies and culture homogenisation are increasingly strong, the more technology and the economy adopt global norms and standards and are based on global patents and intellectual property rights.

How could and should education and training assist in building up a new global society?

To my mind, it is urgent that our leaders reorient present education and training objectives towards a clearly defined humanistic culture. It is time to redefine the basic principles and knowledge core of MBA studies. MBA studies are the learning loci for the winners, for the survivors. We need a new generation of education and training institutions, the main aim of which will be to learn how to promote the people, the institutions, the goods, the services that enhance social links, the will to coexist, the common good, the ability to

respect others and their needs, common security and peaceful relations, good ethical and civil behaviour, accountability and to *share* power and knowledge. The Commission of the European Communities should be among the promoters of such a new generation of 'education and training institutions'. Managers, employers and workers are not and should not remain 'soldiers for the increase of share value'. The spirit of financial productivity should no longer guide the economy and hence, the education and training system. The creation of an International Business Institute for Humanistic Education and Training could be the first step among other initiatives that could mark entering the 21st century.

Recently you stated that everybody should assist in this concept of developing a new global world society by starting at the bottom: by relearning to say 'Hello' to one another. Would you please explain this?

More generally speaking, the first task we should give our leaders is that they learn how to say "good morning" to each other and encourage other citizens to do the same. Throughout the world today's leaders are increasingly applying instruments of war, violence and repression to solve local and interethnical problems such as access to fresh water or trade relations. Violence is increasing everywhere. Competitive warfare is the main feature of today's global market economy. People are not educated to live in peace. The third millennium is set to begin with more and more violence. Growth of private cities (the gated communities) in the USA is a powerful signal of growing mistrust and violence (rejection of the urban poor by the urban rich). Consumption of the wealthy (86% of world consumption) is the main source of the growing misery of the poor (12% of world consumption for +/- five billion people). A global humanistic education is a minimum, modest step to begin with.

What would you advise a young person today to learn, study, and become?

My first recommendation is 'don't choose a field just because it gives you what is considered "useful" knowledge today'.

Secondly, 'choose a field that you feel is really important to you and your contribution to the wellbeing of society'.

Thirdly, 'above all, avoid choosing curricula that teach you how to destroy others'.

How do you look upon yourself: do you feel like a scientist bound by social values, a resistance fighter against the market economy, a humanist, a (post) Marxist, a Christian, an idealist...?

I feel like an eurocrat whose task is to serve policy choices aimed at the enhancement of the common good in Europe and the rest of the world; a fighter against today's predominant philosophy of unjust global market capitalism; a Christian who still believes the main message of Christianity is 'above all, love' like the main message of Taoism is 'above all, do not compete'; a post-neo Marxist because the unity of action of all the exploited, excluded and poor people of the world seems to me to remain the top priority; and an idealist because all of us, like Martin Luther King, must have a dream...

CEDEFOP – European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training

Internationalising vocational education and training in Europe

Prelude to an overdue debate

A discussion paper

Jørn Søgaard,
Norbert Wollschläger

CEDEFOP panorama

Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities

2000 – II, 118 pp. – 21.0 x 29.7 cm

ISBN 92-828-9448-7

Cat.-No: TI-29-00-606-EN-C

Free of charge – 5104 EN –

Venta • Salg • Verkauf • Πωλήσεις • Sales • Vente • Vendita • Verkoop • Venda • Myynti • Försäljning

BELGIQUE/BELGIE

Jean De Lannoy
Avenue du Roi 202/Koningslaan 202
B-1190 Bruxelles/Brussel
Tél: (32-2) 538 43 08
Fax (32-2) 538 08 41
E-mail: jean.de.lannoy@infoboard.be
URL: http://www.jean-de-lannoy.be

La librairie européenne/ De Europese Boekhandel
Rue de la Loi 244/Wetstraat 244
B-1040 Bruxelles/Brussel
Tél: (32-2) 295 26 39
Fax (32-2) 735 08 60
E-mail: mail@libeurop.be
URL: http://www.libeurop.be

Moniteur belge/Belgisch Staatsblad
Rue de Louvain 40-42/Leuvenseweg 40-42
B-1000 Bruxelles/Brussel
Tél: (32-2) 552 22 11
Fax (32-2) 511 01 84

DANMARK

J. H. Schultz Information A/S
Herstedvang 12
DK-2620 Albertslund
Tlf: (45) 43 63 23 00
Fax (45) 43 63 19 69
E-mail: schultz@schultz.dk
URL: http://www.schultz.dk

DEUTSCHLAND

Bundesanzeiger Verlag GmbH
Vertriebsabteilung
Amsterdamer Straße 192
D-50735 Köln
Tel: (49-221) 97 66 80
Fax (49-221) 97 66 82 78
E-Mail: vertrieb@bundesanzeiger.de
URL: http://www.bundesanzeiger.de

ΕΛΛΑΔΑ/GREECE

G. C. Eleftheroudakis SA
International Bookstore
Panepistimiou 17
GR-10564 Athina
Tel: (30-1) 331 41 80/1/2/3/4/5
Fax (30-1) 323 98 21
E-mail: elebooks@netor.gr

ESPAÑA

Boletín Oficial del Estado
Trafalgar, 27
E-28071 Madrid
Tel: (34) 915 38 21 11 (Libros)
Tel: (34) 913 84 17 15 (Suscrip.)
Fax (34) 915 38 21 21 (Libros)
Fax (34) 913 84 17 14 (Suscrip.)
E-mail: clientes@com.boe.es
URL: http://www.boe.es

Mundi Prensa Libros, SA
Castelló, 37
E-28001 Madrid
Tel: (34) 914 36 37 00
Fax (34) 915 75 39 98
E-mail: libreria@mundiprensa.es
URL: http://www.mundiprensa.com

FRANCE

Journal officiel
Service des publications des CE
26, rue Desaix
F-75727 Paris Cedex 15
Tél: (33) 140 58 77 31
Fax (33) 140 58 77 00
E-mail: europublications@journal-officiel.gouv.fr
URL: http://www.journal-officiel.gouv.fr

IRELAND

Government Supplies Agency
Publications Section
4-5 Harcourt Road
Dublin 2
Tel: (353-1) 661 31 11
Fax (353-1) 475 27 60
E-mail: opw@iol.ie

ITALIA

Licosa SpA
Via Duca di Calabria, 1/1
Casella postale 552
I-50125 Firenze
Tel: (39) 055 64 83 1
Fax (39) 055 64 12 57
E-mail: licosa@licosa.com
URL: http://www.licosa.com

LUXEMBOURG

Messageries du livre SARL
5, rue Raiffeisen
L-2411 Luxembourg
Tél: (352) 40 10 20
Fax (352) 49 06 61
E-mail: mail@mdl.lu
URL: http://www.mdl.lu

NEDERLAND

SDU Servicecentrum Uitgevers
Christoffel Plantijnstraat 2
Postbus 20014
2500 EA Den Haag
Tel: (31-70) 378 98 80
Fax (31-70) 378 97 83
E-mail: sdu@sdu.nl
URL: http://www.sdu.nl

ÖSTERREICH

Manz'sche Verlags- und Universitätsbuchhandlung GmbH
Kohlmarkt 16
A-1014 Wien
Tel: (43-1) 53 16 11 00
Fax (43-1) 53 16 11 67
E-Mail: bestellen@manz.co.at
URL: http://www.manz.at

PORTUGAL

Distribuidora de Livros Bertrand Ld.ª
Grupo Bertrand, SA
Rua das Terras dos Vales, 4-A
Apartado 60037
P-2700 Amadora
Tel: (351) 214 95 87 87
Fax (351) 214 96 02 55
E-mail: dlb@ip.pt

Imprensa Nacional-Casa da Moeda, SA
Rua da Escola Politécnica nº 135
P-1250-100 Lisboa Codex
Tel: (351) 213 94 57 00
Fax (351) 213 94 57 50
E-mail: spoce@incm.pt
URL: http://www.incm.pt

SUOMI/FINLAND

Akateeminen Kirjakauppa/ Akademiska Bokhandeln
Keskuskatu 1/Centralgatan 1
PL/PB 128
FIN-00101 Helsinki/Helsingfors
P./tfn (358-9) 121 44 18
F./fax (358-9) 121 44 35
Sähköposti: sps@akateeminen.com
URL: http://www.akateeminen.com

SVERIGE

BTJ AB
Traktorvägen 11
S-221 82 Lund
Tlf: (46-46) 18 00 00
Fax (46-46) 30 79 47
E-post: btjeu-pub@btj.se
URL: http://www.btj.se

UNITED KINGDOM

The Stationery Office Ltd
Orders Department
PO Box 276
London SW8 5DT
Tel: (44-171) 870 60 05-522
Fax (44-171) 870 60 05-533
E-mail: book.orders@theso.co.uk
URL: http://www.tsonline.co.uk

ISLAND

Bokabud Larusar Blöndal
Skólavördustig, 2
IS-101 Reykjavik
Tel: (354) 552 55 40
Fax (354) 552 55 60
E-mail: bokabud@simnet.is

NORGE

Swets Norge AS
Østenjoveien 18
Boks 6512 Etterstad
N-0606 Oslo
Tel: (47-22) 97 45 00
Fax (47-22) 97 45 45
E-mail: kytterid@swets.nl

SCHWEIZ/SUISSE/SVIZZERA

Euro Info Center Schweiz
c/o OSEC
Stampfenbachstraße 85
PF 492
CH-8035 Zürich
Tel: (41-1) 365 53 15
Fax (41-1) 365 54 11
E-mail: eics@osec.ch
URL: http://www.osec.ch/eics

BĂLGARIJA

Europress Euromedia Ltd
59, blvd Vitosha
BG-1000 Sofia
Tel: (359-2) 980 37 66
Fax (359-2) 980 42 30
E-mail: Milena@mbox.cit.bg

ČESKA REPUBLIKA

USIS
NIS-prodejna
Havelkova 22
CZ-130 00 Praha 3
Tel: (420-2) 24 23 14 86
Fax (420-2) 24 23 11 14
E-mail: voldanova@usiscr.cz
URL: http://usiscr.cz

CYPRUS

Cyprus Chamber of Commerce and Industry
PO Box 1455
CY-1509 Nicosia
Tel: (357-2) 66 95 00
Fax (357-2) 66 10 44
E-mail: demetrap@ccci.org.cy

EESTI

Eesti Kaubandus-Tööstuskoda
(Estonian Chamber of Commerce and Industry)
Toom-Kooli 17
EE-0001 Tallinn
Tel: (372) 646 02 44
Fax (372) 646 02 45
E-mail: einfo@koda.ee
URL: http://www.koda.ee

HRVATSKA

Mediatrade Ltd
Pavla Hatza 1
HR-10000 Zagreb
Tel: (385-1) 481 94 11
Fax (385-1) 481 94 11

MAGYARORSZAG

Euro Info Service
Hungexpo Európa Ház
PO Box 44
H-1441 Budapest
Tel: (36-1) 264 82 70
Fax (36-1) 264 82 75
E-mail: euroinfo@euroinfo.hu
URL: http://www.euroinfo.hu

MALTA

Miller Distributors Ltd
Malta International Airport
PO Box 25
Luqa LQA 05
Tel: (356) 66 44 88
Fax (356) 67 67 99
E-mail: gwirth@usa.net

POLSKA

Ars Polona
Krakowskie Przedmiescie 7
Skr. pocztowa 1001
PL-00-950 Warszawa
Tel: (48-22) 826 12 01
Fax (48-22) 826 62 40
E-mail: books119@arspolona.com.pl

ROMÂNIA

Euromedia
Strada Franceza Nr 44 sector 3
RO-70749 Bucuresti
Tel: (40-1) 315 44 03
Fax (40-1) 315 44 03
E-mail: mnedelciu@pcnet.pcnet.ro

ROSSIYA

CCEC
60-letiya Oktyabrya Av. 9
117312 Moscow
Tel: (7-095) 135 52 27
Fax (7-095) 135 52 27

SLOVAKIA

Centrum VTI SR
Nám. Slobody, 19
SK-81223 Bratislava
Tel: (421-7) 54 41 83 64
Fax (421-7) 54 41 83 64
E-mail: europ@tbb1.sltk.stuba.sk
URL: http://www.sltk.stuba.sk

SLOVENIJA

Gospodarski Vestnik
Dunajska cesta 5
SLO-1000 Ljubljana
Tel: (386) 613 09 16 40
Fax (386) 613 09 16 45
E-mail: europ@gvestnik.si
URL: http://www.gvestnik.si

TURKIYE

Dünya Infotel AS
100, Yil Mahallessi 34440
TR-80050 Bagcilar-Istanbul
Tel: (90-212) 629 46 89
Fax (90-212) 629 46 27
E-mail: infotel@dunya-gazete.com.tr

AUSTRALIA

Hunter Publications
PO Box 404
3067 Abbotsford, Victoria
Tel: (61-3) 94 17 53 61
Fax (61-3) 94 19 71 54
E-mail: jpdavies@ozemail.com.au

CANADA

Les éditions La Liberté Inc.
3020, chemin Sainte-Foy
G1X 3V6 Sainte-Foy, Quebec
Tel: (1-418) 658 37 63
Fax (1-800) 567 54 49
E-mail: liberte@mediom.qc.ca

Renouf Publishing Co. Ltd
5369 Chemin Canotek Road Unit 1
K1J 9J3 Ottawa, Ontario
Tel: (1-613) 745 26 65
Fax (1-613) 745 76 60
E-mail: order.dept@renoufbooks.com
URL: http://www.renoufbooks.com

EGYPT

The Middle East Observer
41 Sherif Street
Cairo
Tel: (20-2) 392 69 19
Fax (20-2) 393 97 32
E-mail: inquiry@meobserver.com
URL: http://www.meobserver.com.eg

INDIA

EBIC India
3rd Floor, Y. B. Chavan Centre
Gen. J. Bhosale Marg
400 021 Mumbai
Tel: (91-22) 282 60 64
Fax (91-22) 285 45 64
E-mail: ebic@giasbm01.vsnl.net.in
URL: http://www.ebicindia.com

JAPAN

PSI-Japan
Asahi Sanbancho Plaza #206
7-1 Sanbancho, Chiyoda-ku
Tokyo 102
Tel: (81-3) 32 34 69 21
Fax (81-3) 32 34 69 15
E-mail: books@psi-japan.co.jp
URL: http://www.psi-japan.co.jp

MALAYSIA

EBIC Malaysia
Level 7, Wisma Hong Leong
18 Jalan Perak
50450 Kuala Lumpur
Tel: (60-3) 21 62 62 98
Fax (60-3) 21 62 61 98
E-mail: ebic-kl@mol.net.my

MEXICO

Mundi Prensa Mexico, SA de CV
Río Pánuco No 141
Colonia Cuauhtémoc
MX-06500 Mexico, DF
Tel: (52-5) 533 56 58
Fax (52-5) 514 67 99
E-mail: 101545.2361@compuserve.com

PHILIPPINES

EBIC Philippines
19th Floor, PS Bank Tower
Sen. Gil J. Puyat Ave. cor. Tindalo St.
Makati City
Metro Manila
Tel: (63-2) 759 66 80
Fax (63-2) 759 66 90
E-mail: eccpcom@globe.com.ph
URL: http://www.eccp.com

SOUTH AFRICA

Eurochamber of Commerce in South Africa
PO Box 781738
2146 Sandton
Tel: (27-11) 884 39 52
Fax (27-11) 883 55 73
E-mail: info@eurochamber.co.za

SOUTH KOREA

The European Union Chamber of Commerce in Korea
5th Fl. The Shilla Hotel
202, Jangchung-dong 2 Ga, Chung-ku
100-392 Seoul
Tel: (82-2) 22 53-5631/4
Fax (82-2) 22 53-5635/6
E-mail: eucck@eucck.org
URL: http://www.eucck.org

SRI LANKA

EBIC Sri Lanka
Trans Asia Hotel
115 Sir chittampalam
A. Gardiner Mawatha
Colombo 2
Tel: (94-1) 074 71 50 78
Fax (94-1) 44 87 79
E-mail: ebicsl@itmin.com

THAILAND

EBIC Thailand
29 Vanissa Building, 8th Floor
Soi Chidlom
Ploenchit
10330 Bangkok
Tel: (66-2) 655 06 27
Fax (66-2) 655 06 28
E-mail: ebicbkk@ksc15.th.com
URL: http://www.ebicbkk.org

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Bernan Associates
4611-F Assembly Drive
Lanham MD20706
Tel: (1-800) 274 44 47 (toll free telephone)
Fax (1-800) 865 34 50 (toll free fax)
E-mail: query@bernan.com
URL: http://www.bernan.com

ANDERE LÄNDER/OTHER COUNTRIES/ AUTRES PAYS

Bitte wenden Sie sich an ein Büro Ihrer Wahl/ Please contact the sales office of your choice/ Veuillez vous adresser au bureau de vente de votre choix

Office for Official Publications of the European Communities
2, rue Mercier
L-2985 Luxembourg
Tel: (352) 29 29-42455
Fax (352) 29 29-42758
E-mail: info.info@cec.eu.int
URL: http://eur-op.eu.int

12000

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Internationalising vocational education and training in Europe

Prelude to an overdue debate

A discussion paper

Opening of international markets, global movement of capital, the rising numbers of transnational mergers, and expanding co-operation in legislation affect the national economies. New information and communication technologies have made globalisation move forward faster and more efficiently.

Globalisation will challenge more and more companies and jobs. At the same time international competition and strategic co-operation call for a dynamic workforce of internationally active people.

Despite these far-reaching changes, the structure and content of vocational education and training still have a tendency to remain stable. Embedded in social and political systems, vocational education and training are quite resistant and less likely to be influenced by things other than the national agenda.

Answers to the following questions are Imperative:

How can companies, employees, students, teachers, trainers and training administrators adapt to the consequences and challenges inherent in globalisation?

To what extent are national education and training systems prepared for going international?

How can training schemes and curricula be adjusted to the international orientation?

Free of charge – 5104 EN –

CEDEFOP
European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training

Europe 123, GR-57001 THESSALONIKI (Pylea)
Postal address:
PO Box 22427, GR-55102 THESSALONIKI
Tel. (30-31) 490 111 Fax (30-31) 490 020 E-mail: info@cedefop.eu.int
Homepage: www.cedefop.eu.int Interactive website: www.trainingvillage.gr

OFFICE FOR OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS
OF THE EUROPEAN COMMUNITIES
L-2985 Luxembourg

ISBN 92-828-9448-7

BEST COPY AVAILABLE